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SOME PROBLEMS OF THE CATHOLIC COLLEGE

VI. COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

In discussing the factors that make for college efficiency, Mr. Adam Leroy Jones, Director of Admissions at Columbia, says: "The matter of entrance requirements is fundamental. Indeed, some of those most interested in college standards have maintained that the matter of entrance requirements and their enforcement is by far the most important thing to be considered in determining whether or not a college is doing standard work."¹ The Committee on Standardization of the American Council on Education would appear to share this opinion inasmuch as it gives first place in its list of requirements for standardization to this very matter. "A college," the requirement reads, "should demand for admission the satisfactory completion of a four-year course in a secondary school or the equivalent of such a course. The major portion of the secondary school course accepted for admission should be definitely correlated with the curriculum to which the student is admitted."² As the Catholic Educational Association has formally accepted the principles and standards adopted by the above-named Council it becomes the duty of Catholic colleges belonging to the Association to enforce these regulations. It will not be out of place, therefore, to give some attention to this particular requirement and to analyze the practice of colleges in this regard with a view to determining

¹ Jones, Adam Leroy, "Factors Which Make for College Efficiency." C. E. A. Bulletin, November, 1923, p. 123.

² C. E. A. Bulletin, November, 1923, p. 93.

what should be our procedure in the admission of students to college work.

The requirement insists, in the first place, upon the satisfactory completion of a four-year high school course or its equivalent. About the first part of this standard there should be no misunderstanding, although it may be necessary to inquire what the Council intends by the expression, *satisfactory completion*. The principal difficulty arises in determining what is to be understood by the equivalent of a four-year high school course; but this can be settled rather easily when the secondary school requirement is interpreted in terms of units, as is generally done. Before taking up this matter, however, there is one point to which attention should be called. A student applying for admission to college on the basis of a high school course should be required to present, in addition to a certified copy of his credits, a certificate stating how long he has been in high school. The reason for this is that some high schools, even when organized on the four-year basis, permit a student to earn more than four units a year, which is the number ordinarily allowed. As a consequence, a student may apply for admission to college at the end of his third year in such a high school, presenting, at least on paper, the required number of units, viz., 15 or 16. In fact, cases are not unknown in which students have gone "from second-year high school into colleges as conditioned students to carry on or attempt to carry on freshman subjects".³ If such a student is admitted to college, the high school from which he comes will naturally protest, especially if it happens to be itself associated with a college to which, under the circumstances, he could not hope to obtain admission. As a matter of fact, such a student is wholly unprepared for freshman work, as the college admitting him will undoubtedly find out before he is long in attendance. Situations of this kind, which are clearly undesirable, would be avoided entirely if all high schools conformed to the established requirement which holds that "the four-year secondary curriculum should be regarded as representing not more than 16 units of work";⁴ but until such time as this condition is realized colleges should recognize the rights of the pre-

³ Vide Wagner, Rev. Ignatius A., "Standardization of the Junior College." C. E. A. Bulletin, November, 1925, p. 91.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin (1925) No. 11, p. 2.

paratory schools and at the same time maintain their own standards by insisting upon the presentation of the high school diploma or, in lieu of this, of a certificate such as was mentioned above.

Moreover, much of the difficulty mentioned in the preceding paragraph will be obviated if colleges hold strictly to the requirement we are discussing, which specifies that the secondary schools from which students are admitted should be approved by a recognized accrediting agency. The Catholic Educational Association has not as yet published a list of approved Catholic high schools, although a movement has been launched with this purpose in view. In the meantime, college entrance boards should make use of the lists published by the Committee on Affiliation at the Catholic University, by the various state boards, by the other educational associations and by the U. S. Bureau of Education. High schools, public and private alike, that are doing satisfactory secondary work should have no difficulty in receiving recognition from one or other of these agencies, and if their names do not appear on the lists we are justified in presuming that their work is not up to the required standard.

We may now ask what we are to understand by the satisfactory completion of the high school course. The general practice of colleges and educational associations defines this in terms of units and specifies 15 as the minimum for unconditional entrance to college. "The object is—not to accept a student who has not completed at least 93 per cent of the work required by a standard four-year high school."⁸ The full four-year high school would represent 16 units; and in some colleges this is the number required for unconditional entrance. Maine alone, of the state universities, requires less than 15.

The meaning of the unit is rather generally understood, but its definition may be inserted here for the sake of completeness. It "represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work."⁹ Discussing the unit which is taken as a standard of measurement for secondary school work, a recent bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Education calls attention to several factors

⁸ Wagner, Rev. Ignatius A., "Standardization of the Junior College," *loc. cit.*

⁹ U. S. Bureau of Education, *loc. cit.*

that are implied in its definition. As ordinarily interpreted, it takes the four-year high school as a basis and assumes that the school year extends over a minimum of thirty-six weeks, that the periods are not less than forty minutes in length, and that the subject is taught four or five periods a week. Under ordinary circumstances 120 sixty-minute hours are considered necessary for the satisfactory completion of a year's work in any subject. The bulletin suggests further that, if the above factors are kept in mind, there should not be any difficulty in interpreting the work done in high schools organized on any other than a four-year basis.⁷ As there are still not a few high schools that graduate their pupils after a three-year course, this official interpretation of the unit will prove serviceable in evaluating the credits presented by such graduates. It will likewise be of value in determining whether a particular applicant who has not had a regular high school course presents the equivalent. In the opinion of the writer there should be few applications for admission on the basis of equivalent preparation—that is, of students who have not had at least three years of high school—except perhaps in the case of teaching sisters who are anxious to secure college degrees; and as I have elsewhere discussed the method of dealing with these⁸ I shall not take up the matter here.

The quantitative requirement being thus determined, we may now turn our attention to its qualitative aspect; for it is generally held that the mere completion of 15 or 16 units of high school work should not constitute a passport to college but that "the major portion of the secondary school course accepted for admission should be definitely correlated with the curriculum to which the student is admitted."⁹ Hence colleges, as a rule, prescribe a certain number of units, leaving others elective. The practice in this regard varies somewhat with the different colleges and universities. According to the statistics compiled by the U. S. Bureau of Education for the state universities, the prescribed subjects for admission to the Arts Course range from 4 (California) to 12½ (Georgia).¹⁰ Despite this wide variation,

⁷ *Ibidem*.

⁸ Jordan, Rev. Edward B., "The Evaluation of Credits." C. E. A. Bulletin, November, 1925, p. 492.

⁹ Cf. Statement of standard above.

¹⁰ *Opus cit.*, p. 6.

there is a certain amount of agreement on several points, and some subjects are found to be rather generally prescribed. There is likewise a noteworthy tendency to agree on the number of units to be offered in each subject. Out of forty-three universities listed, forty require 3 units in English; one, California, requires but 2; while two, Minnesota and West Virginia, each demand 4. In mathematics, twenty-eight universities require 2 units; eight make the number $2\frac{1}{2}$; two specify 1 only; and two demand 3. In foreign languages, seventeen universities place the requirement at 2 units, one requires 3, four demand 4, and three oblige the student to present 5 or more. In science, fifteen universities require 1 unit; three require 2. In history, nineteen demand 1 unit while two require 2.¹¹

From the above outline it will be seen that the general practice of the state universities is to prescribe a certain number of units in English, mathematics, foreign language, science and history. A similar agreement as to required subjects is found among our Catholic colleges, although a comparison of several catalogs of the latter institutions shows considerable diversity as to the number of units prescribed as a whole and in the different subjects. Some prescribe only 6; others as high as 14 and even 15. In the writer's estimate, both of these figures are extreme. The lower one admits of too much choice on the part of the pupil and must of necessity lead to difficulties in the arrangement of a freshman course that will fit in with the needs of students who matriculate with such diverse preparation. Few of the state universities, eight out of forty-three to be exact, are satisfied with prescribing such a small number. On the other hand, 14 would seem to be excessive even when the total number required for entrance is 16; for not only does such a requirement smack of Procrustean methods but it automatically leads to the exclusion of many students coming from high schools where conditions do not permit them to follow the specified course though they are otherwise well prepared for college work. In fact, such a requirement can be met by one type of high school

¹¹Some of the State Universities require 1 or more units in social science or history. Others require certain combinations of the subjects listed which I have not thought necessary to mention in detail. For a complete statement of requirements cf. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin (1925), No. 11, p. 6, from which the above data are taken.

course only. Here, again, a comparison with the state universities is worth while. Only one of these, Georgia, prescribes $12\frac{1}{2}$ units, and one, Ohio, 12. In the majority of cases, thirty-two out of forty-three, the prescribed number of units ranges from 7 to 11. While it is not possible to lay down a general rule that would be valid in all cases, it would seem that the desirable number of prescribed units should be 10 or 11. This will secure for all prospective students the core of preparation which is considered essential for successful work in college and which may be gained in any high school worthy of the name and, at the same time, will allow enough latitude in the selection of electives to provide for special tastes or interests and to exclude undesirable uniformity of product.

In the matter of the number of units prescribed in the different subjects the greatest divergence of opinion seems to be on the question of foreign languages. Some of our colleges apparently do not prescribe foreign language for entrance; a number require 2 units; while some demand 5, 6 or even 7. Some require both Latin and a modern language; others Latin and Greek, 4 units being the usual number specified in the former and 2 in the latter. Here is a diversity of practice for which it is difficult to find adequate reasons. The Arts courses in our colleges ought to be more or less alike; certainly they are not sufficiently unlike to demand such differences in preparation for their pursuit. The bone of contention is, of course, Latin. In the opinion of many of our educators we are practically committed to the inclusion of at least one of the classical languages in the curriculum outlined for the A. B. degree; and the question is to determine what preparation is requisite for satisfactory college work in these subjects. Some hold that the student who intends to pursue Latin in college should have at least four full years of high school training in the subject; others hold that two years should constitute ample preparation. The question will never be settled until we determine exactly what is to be understood by college Latin. There is a growing sentiment in favor of the idea that even first-year Latin may be ranked as a college subject provided it is taught by college methods. While this may be considered an extreme view, there does not seem to be any valid objection that can be brought against the position of those

who hold that the authors usually read in the student's third and fourth year of Latin, particularly in the latter, contain sufficiently advanced matter to rank them as college subjects, especially if they are presented not merely as language but as literature and are studied in their historical, social and ethical setting.¹²

Arguing from analogy with other subjects, one would be inclined to agree with the upholders of this view. If two years of mathematics, French or German, and one or two years of physics, chemistry, biology or history are considered ample foundation for college work in these respective branches, it is difficult to see why college Latin should necessitate so much more extensive preparation. The reason does not lie in the greater difficulty of the language, surely, nor yet in its greater importance. The writer would be the last one to belittle the advantages of a training in Latin for any of the learned professions, but he seriously doubts the wisdom of devoting to it such a disproportionate amount of the student's time.

The results actually obtained do not appear to justify the traditional procedure. How often we run across students who, after six and even eight years spent in the study of the language, are unable to read Latin at sight and are hopelessly at sea if they are required to attend lectures given in that tongue. As for an appreciation of the beauty of Latin and a sympathetic understanding of the culture and civilization of the people who used it, few only of those who have taken the subject in college have carried away such lasting benefits from their study. On the other hand, it is not unusual to meet students who can read a modern foreign language intelligently and even converse with more or less fluency after two years of study in the same, while many of those who devote to French or German as much time as is given in our colleges to Latin show an acquaintance with the literature of those languages that is rarely equalled by the common run of students of the classical tongues. The conclusion is inevitable that our methods of instruction in

¹² Some colleges allow only half credit for third-year Latin pursued in college, and a similar procedure is followed in the case of first-year Greek. Cf. Kunneke, Rev. Francis J., "Articulation of High School and College." C. E. A. Bulletin, November, 1924, p. 198.

Latin are at fault and that we should aim at the improvement of these rather than depend upon the piling up of time requirements if we wish to make the study worth while.

The status of Greek is somewhat different. Few colleges prescribe this subject for entrance, though practically all admit it as an elective. This is perhaps wise, since many high schools are not in a position to provide instruction in Greek. Yet the subject is highly desirable in college, and, while it is doubtful whether it should be made obligatory even for the A. B. degree, Catholic colleges need offer no apology for maintaining the traditional attitude toward the value of Greek. A satisfactory course, however, may be given entirely in college, particularly if the student has had some preliminary training in Latin, or even in a modern foreign language, and it is hardly necessary to require antecedent high school preparation in the subject. Here, also, the most important thing is the method of teaching. Mere multiplication of years in the imparting of the subject will not produce the desired results. Witness the many who, after years of so-called study of Greek, have no appreciation whatever of Greek culture, art, civilization and history. Yet these should be the major objectives in the study of the language. The practical value of Greek in the understanding of scientific terminology and in the comprehension of our own language is not to be despised, but it is only secondary in comparison with the objectives mentioned above.

Another difficulty that presents itself in the matter of entrance requirements is the place of religion. None of our colleges, as far as I know, prescribes religion for entrance, as this would be tantamount to excluding automatically students coming from public and other non-Catholic high schools. The question is rather whether it should be admitted as an elective, and if so, to what extent. Opinion on this point varies. Some hold that we should accept religion as one of the 15 or 16 required units; some admit two units of religion, specifying that not more than one-half unit should be earned in any one year; some maintain that where religion is admitted 17 units should be required.¹³ This latter position is hardly tenable. Since the majority of non-Catholic colleges require but 15 units for entrance, it is not

¹³ Vide Wagner, Rev. Ignatius A., "Standardization of the Junior College," *loc. cit.*

fair to Catholic students to require them to present 17. Moreover, religion is surely of sufficient importance to justify our putting it on the same basis as other elective subjects. The question, therefore, is to decide whether we should admit one or two units in the subject. Personally, I incline to the admission of two. We rightly insist upon our high schools imparting formal religious instruction, not for one or two years but throughout the course. The least our colleges should do, therefore, is to give recognition to these courses; otherwise the students in our high schools are placed at a disadvantage, since they are obliged to carry work for which they can receive no credit. By limiting to two units the amount of credit to be granted we are not allowing religion to usurp unduly the place of other studies. By specifying that the two units be spread over four years we are accommodating our requirement to the usual practice, which is to teach the subject on an average two hours per week.

With regard to the other electives our colleges generally allow a wide range of selection. A wise provision on the part of some is to require that an additional unit be chosen in some one of the prescribed subjects so that the high school course will represent three full years of work in at least two subjects. This makes for thoroughness; and if the advanced work is taken in a subject in which the student is especially interested, or for which he shows particular talent, the problem of selecting his major work in college will be considerably simplified. This provision will frequently be found to take care of third year of Latin that many consider desirable for college entrance.

Strictly vocational subjects are usually not accepted in excess of one unit, for the reason that they cannot really be considered as preparatory for college work. Such subjects have been introduced into the high schools to meet the demands of those who hold that the high school should offer preparation not only for college but also for economic life. This is not the place to discuss their value in fulfilling the purpose for which they were designed. Suffice it to say that no injustice is done the high schools if the colleges refuse to accept, for entrance credit, courses that owe their introduction largely to the continued protests against the domination of the secondary schools by the institutions of higher learning. These remarks apply with

equal force to the commercial subjects. Of course it may happen that a student who begins his high school course with no intention of entering college, and therefore selects his subjects with a view to their immediate practical value in life, later changes his mind and plans to continue his studies after graduation from high school.

What is to be done in his case? College authorities have no desire to exclude such a student, especially if he be of the proper caliber, but they have, none-the-less, the right to insist that he bring to college the preparation that will fit him for satisfactory work in one or other of the regularly organized courses. Catholic colleges, in particular, are in no position to undertake on a large scale the business of making the course fit the student, though this is done to a certain extent in practically all colleges in the case of students who enter with conditions. Conditional entrance, however, is not to be encouraged. It is really to the best interests of both college and students to insist regularly upon the full quota of entrance units and to allow conditions only in certain exceptional cases. The high school owes it to its students to make them familiar with the requirements for college entrance, and if this is done, as a recent writer suggests,¹⁴ at the beginning of the junior year it will not be a difficult matter for the student, even though he has started out on another tack, so to arrange his course that he may enter college without the handicap of conditions.

The foregoing discussion has dealt almost exclusively with the question of preparatory training for the Arts Course, and nothing has been said explicitly of the subjects that should be required for entrance to other courses given in our colleges. The principles of selection, however, are the same. The important point is that "the high school course should be definitely correlated with the curriculum to which the student is admitted." More of the sciences will naturally be demanded for admission to the B. S. Course; more mathematics for the Engineering Course; and so on. Colleges giving courses in economics and commerce might lay down special requirements for entrance to these and give more credit for commercial and vocational subjects than is ordinarily allowed, but the general opinion is that

¹⁴ Kunnecke, Rev. Francis J., *Art. cit.*

the units ordinarily required for entrance to the Arts Course constitute the best preparation also for these. In a word, "The college should make sure that the applicant for admission has completed the secondary school work which will properly prepare him for more advanced work in college."¹⁵

Finally, our remarks have been confined to an interpretation of the minimum requirements for college entrance. Few colleges today, however, are satisfied with the mere completion of a high school course, no matter what its character, for admission to advanced work. There are so many applicants and the facilities are so limited, even in larger institutions, that further selection has become necessary; and the colleges are endeavoring to devise means by which their doors will be closed except to such students as give unquestionable evidence of their ability to profit by a college course. An outline of the various plans that have been proposed and put into execution and an evaluation of their respective merits would exceed the limits of space at our disposal here, so we shall postpone their discussion for a future article.

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¹⁵ Jones, Adam Leroy, *Art. cit.*

EDUCATION IN LITHUANIA

The Lithuanian nation always strove for the development of education. Her national saying, "enlightenment is power," manifests these aspirations. We find the same sentiment in the national hymn: "Light and truth are our steps to progress."

Education in Lithuania in 1795 had reached a very high point of development, equal, indeed, to that attained in the nations of Western Europe; but during the Nineteenth century, due to unfavorable political conditions, it began to decline.

I. THE SCHOOLS IN LITHUANIA AT THE TIME OF THE ANNEXATION TO RUSSIA

The Catholic Church, in accordance with Christ's command, "Going therefore, teach ye all nations,"¹ preached the Gospel and organized schools in all countries. That commission was fulfilled in Lithuania as elsewhere. Every church had its parish school in which reading, writing, religion (catechism) and singing were taught.²

Beginning with the sixteenth century, Protestant ideals began to spread throughout Lithuania. Through the press and the schools, especially those of Vilna, Keidainiai, and Birzai, these heretical principles were organized into systematic propaganda against the Catholics.³ The Catholics reacted against this propaganda by organizing schools, both elementary and of higher learning.

Jesuit Schools.—Protesevicius, Bishop of Vilna, in 1569 invited the Jesuit fathers to come to Lithuania. There in 1570 they opened the first high school at Vilna, which in 1578 was reorganized as an academy. Until that time Lithuanian students were compelled to attend the universities of Western Europe—Paris, Oxford, Leipsig, Cracow, and Prague—for higher education. In 1387 at the State University of Prague there was a separate house for the twelve Lithuanian students who were attending.⁴

¹ Matt. xxviii, 19.

² Lithuania (186), by Harrison (Eng.).

³ Zhurnal M. N. P. (71-72), cxv, 1862 (Rus.).

⁴ Obsazy Litwy (184) Jaroszewics (Pol.).

The Jesuit schools produced well-trained teachers for the elementary schools, with the result that elementary education began to develop very rapidly, both as to quality and extent.

The Jesuit Colleges were of three kinds: (1) Lower College (High School), three-year course; (2) Middle College, five-year course; (3) Higher College (for higher studies), three to four-year course. The highest school was the Academy at Vilna.

Jesuit colleges were of the classical type and the Latin language was used in all work. The highest school (Academy at Vilna) was the nucleus of all the Jesuit colleges in the country. This academy, during more than 250 years (1570-1832), was the chief center of education in Lithuania. In this institution we find courses in theology, philosophy, civil law, and medicine (1641). The course in theology required four years to complete, the others three. The degrees conferred were those of Master and Doctor.

In the Jesuit schools the professors were well-trained men, who, through their sympathetic attitude, secured the good-will of the students and people alike. For this reason the schools were very successful and their numbers in the country increased rapidly.^a Objections were raised to them, however, because of the stress which they laid upon the classics; it was contended that mathematics and nature studies were neglected. This criticism was sustained by some measure of truth, but it must be remembered that in those days classical education prevailed extensively, and, unless one was familiar with Latin, he was not considered an educated man. That the objection was not wholly valid may be gathered from the declaration by the Russian Ministry of Education, which was anti-Catholic and, especially, anti-Jesuit in its attitude, to the effect that "Science and methods in the Jesuit schools were not inferior to those of other schools, but, on the contrary, were higher and better."^b

The splendid organization of schools in Lithuania, which was developed by the Jesuits, passed on to the control of the Commission of Education, when in 1773, in accordance with the Papal Bull, "Dominus et Redemptor Noster," the Jesuit order was sup-

^a (a) *Historia szkół w Koronie i w wiel. Księstwie Litewskiem* (123-250) V. I., by Łukasiewicz (Pol.). (b) *Zhurnal Min. N. Pr.* (650-697), cxv; 1862 (Rus.).

^b *Zhurnal M. N. P.* (81) 1862 (Rus.).

pressed. Under the regime of the Commission, only those schools were affected which were under the Jesuit control.⁷

Piarist Schools.—Very important schools were organized by the Piarist monks, an order founded by St. Joseph Colosantius in Spain in 1607, and called by him "Patres scholarum piarum."

The Piarists came to Lithuania in 1772 and founded a college at Vilna. Their schools had a different system from those of the Jesuits. Unlike the colleges conducted by the latter, in which a five-year course prevailed, the Piarist schools required a seven-year course. Moreover, in these schools mathematics and nature studies were given a more prominent place in the curriculum.

But education in Lithuania was not limited to the Jesuit schools, under the control of the Commission of Education, and those of the Piarists. There were in addition many other schools, both elementary and of higher learning, conducted by the Franciscans, Dominicans, Bernardines, Capuchins, and Basilians. In these monastic schools the system and methods of teaching differed in no essential respect from those followed in the Jesuit and Piarist institutions. In addition to the foregoing, education for women was provided by convent schools.⁸

At the time of her annexation to Russia there were in Lithuania 69 schools of higher learning, 44 of which had been established and were then controlled by the various monastic orders, the others being ruled by the Commission of Education.⁹

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there was a school connected with every Catholic church in the country. In the diocese of Samogitia there were some 193 churches,¹⁰ whilst those in the dioceses of Vilna and Seiniai numbered about 300. At this time there were in Lithuania not less than 500 elementary schools.

The Russian Ministry of Education significantly said: "The science, organization, and pedagogical methods of Lithuanian education, if unhampered, would have been the best in Europe."¹¹

⁷ (a) "Historiya szkol w Koronie i w Wiel Księstwie Litewskiem," by Lukassevich (Pol.). (b) *Zhurnal M. N. R.* (70-97), cxv, and (310-332), cxvi; 1862 (Rus.).

⁸ *Zhurnal M. N. P.* (p. 327), cxvi; 1862 (Rus.).

⁹ *Russkyi Archiv* (1161), v, 12b, I, 1873 (Rus.).

¹⁰ *Zemaiciu Vyskupyste* (126), Vys. Valancius (Lit.).

¹¹ *Zhurnal M. N. P.* (327), cxv, 1862 (Rus.).

II. EDUCATION IN LITHUANIA UNDER THE RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT

In the division of the federated states in 1795, Lithuania was annexed by Russia. The Russian government, however, temporarily allowed the old methods and curriculum of the Lithuanians to remain, but all the schools without exception were under the direct control of the district curator, without whose permission there could be no interchange of teachers among schools. Father Janchauskas, Dominican Superior, on May 20, 1803, sent a petition to the Ministry of Education requesting permission to transfer the teachers in his schools. This request was rejected on June 13, 1803, under N. 39,231.¹²

Czar Alexander I appointed his personal friend, Prince Chartoryski, as the first curator of the Vilna district. Chartoryski, being a Pole, accepted the office with the intention of furthering Polish propaganda.¹³ Such propaganda, however, was regarded most unfavorably by the Russians, yet in the period from 1803 to 1823 Chartoryski, through the medium of the schools, succeeded in accomplishing a great deal towards Polonization. Novosilcev, who succeeded Chartoryski, and who was appointed by Ruzumovski, Minister of Education, as president of a Commission to inquire into educational affairs, said: "Chartoryski through the schools had spread Polonization propaganda so thoroughly that Russianization of the Lithuanians was retarded a hundred years."¹⁴

The condition of Lithuanian education had become most disordered when, in 1824, Novosilcev, of the Vilna district, was appointed curator. Simultaneously with the inauguration of an intensive campaign to destroy all traces of Polonization, he launched a concerted movement toward Russianization. Thus the Lithuanian schools found themselves between Scylla and Charybdis. The better educational centers of Lithuania became the special channels through which flowed systematic propaganda which eventually led to educational decline.

Polonization was not entirely new in Lithuania's educational history. Its demoralizing influence was manifest in the lower or

¹² *Sbornik Materialov dla prosvoshchenia Rossii* (227-230), v, II, 1802 (Rus.).

¹³ *Sbornik Statei po otnosheniu* (124), K. Zapadnoi Rossii (Rus.).

¹⁴ *Geschichte der Polischen ideen* (67), by Feldman (Germ.).

parochial schools as early as the fifteenth century, and from its first appearance to this time it has never been eradicated, or even seriously interrupted. The drastic system of Russianization instituted some twenty-five years after the annexation of Lithuania was met by the influence of Polish propaganda, and the schools became the battleground of the bitter conflict which ensued. Disintegration of education and culture was in such circumstances inevitable. Moreover, Russian teachers were appointed in monastic and other schools, individuals who came to Lithuanian villages from all corners of Russia as miserable bread-seekers, possessing knowledge neither of the language nor the customs of the country and lacking even the most meager qualification for the carrying out of their important and difficult task. These so-called teachers brought the schools into such bad repute that it became difficult to reestablish them in the confidence and respect of the peasantry. This situation was rendered more acute by the fact that the Russian teachers held the Orthodox faith.¹⁵ These abuses resulted in 1831 in rebellion on the part of the Lithuanians, but it was suppressed with ruthless brutality. The government accused the schools of fostering the spirit of rebellion and expelled many of the students, while all were subject to greater or lesser persecution.¹⁶ Such treatment became by no means uncommon, and cruelties were inflicted upon the Lithuanian pupils by teachers and police on the slightest provocation.

Closing of the Schools

The University of Vilna, with the exception of the Department of Medicine, was closed in 1832. In 1842 this department was also abolished.¹⁷ The closing of this university constituted one of the severest blows to Lithuanian education and culture.

The grammar and higher schools were frequently closed by the Russian government for the most trivial reasons. For example, Novosilcev, after an inspection in 1826, sent the following communication to the government: "The schools of the Piarists devote much time to physical exercise, play and theatricals, which

¹⁵ Lithuania (202), by Benedicksen (Eng.).

¹⁶ Sbornik Statei po otnoshenii k. Zapadnoj Rossii (240-245), by Shalkovich (Rus.).

¹⁷ Sbornik statei po otnoshenii k. Zapadnoj Rossii (295), by Shalkovich (Rus.).

are attended by women; moreover, the schools engender a spirit antagonistic to the government."¹⁸ Following the insurrection of 1831 all the monastic and parochial schools were closed (1832).¹⁹

In 1841 the patriotic and energetic Valancius, bishop of the diocese of Zemaitija, secured permission to open the parochial schools of his diocese. Accordingly, he sent a letter to the priests and nobles, inviting them to organize parochial schools in connection with all churches and in the villages. By 1852 his efforts had borne such fruit that there were in his diocese 197 parochial schools attended by 5,910 pupils. The government schools, on the other hand, numbered in all Lithuania only 17, with an enrollment of 815 pupils. Naturally the government looked with a distrustful eye upon the growing influence of the parochial schools in Zemaitija because it retarded the spread of Russian propaganda; and hence the governor of Vilna district, on December 23, 1862, ordered the schools to be closed. The zealous bishop, however, succeeded in evading the order until the time arrived for the second organized resistance.²⁰

After abolishing the monastic and private schools, the Russian government established only 11 gymnasia and 84 grammar schools. It was very difficult for Lithuanians to gain admission to these schools, and every year the number of Catholic students was reduced. From the table of statistics given on the following page, the policy of the Russian Government is evident.

To cope with this difficulty the Lithuanian farmers and peasantry began instructing their children at home. Private tutors were employed who met the children at stated meeting places in the community.

All classes in Lithuania, educated and illiterate alike, grew greatly dissatisfied under the yoke of Russian rule with its accompanying persecution, and every effort was bent in seeking to free themselves from such ruthless dominance. So it was that in 1863 the country, for the second time, rose up in rebellion against Russia, and in this insurrection all classes were represented. To cope with this uprising the Russian government sent General

¹⁸ Russkji archiv (1167), v. 12 (Rus.).

¹⁹ Lithuania (56), by Harrison (Eng.).

²⁰ Vyskupas M. Valancius (50-66) by Alekna (Lith.).

STUDENT ENROLLMENT ACCORDING TO RELIGION^u

Gimnasia	January 1, 1862						January 1, 1863							
	Rom. Cath.	Orth- odox	Luth- eran	Ref. Ch.	Jew- ish	Ma- hom.	Total	Rom. Cath.	Orth- odox	Luth- eran	Ref. Ch.	Jew- ish	Ma- hom.	Total
Vilnius.....	519	53	10	4	11	8	605	273	130	15	2	25	1	446
Svencionai.....	122	4	3	1	130	74	9	1	4	1	89
Gardinas.....	262	56	11	1	19	4	353	103	71	9	10	7	200
Belstoge.....	354	20	15	6	1	446	93	66	7	14	2	182
Minckas.....	465	111	16	23	9	624	157	121	10	27	10	325
Naugardukas.....	274	29	1	2	16	322	113	20	1	4	9	147
Pinskas.....	143	60	4	4	216	111	39	1	8	209
Mosyuknas.....	132	41	1	174	61	104	12	177
Sluckas.....	291	56	2	49	4	3	405	118	51	6	39	13	1	233
Kaunas.....	216	24	21	28	5	294	142	91	22	66	2	323
Siauliai.....	518	15	8	8	1	550	208	16	8	27	259
Total.....	3,301	519	88	54	109	48	4,123	1,453	768	80	41	210	33	2,585

^uRuskoe Dielo v S. Zapadnom Kraje (100), by Kornilov (Rus.).

Muraviov to the scene of action and, after instituting a reign of terror, he suppressed the movement in May, 1864.²²

After the second insurrection more severe anti-Catholic and anti-Lithuanian restrictions were placed on the schools. The activities of all remaining religious orders were suppressed, and all Catholic schools were closed. Religious teaching in the public schools was under strict government control. The Lithuanians kept their children at home and, until they had reached the age of nine years, taught them to read and write the Lithuanian language. When they did permit their children to attend the Russian schools, it was only after they had been instructed in their religion and been taught to read and write Lithuanian. Private tutorship was strictly prohibited by the government, and with this precautionary measure in force, education was obtained at great hazard and under the greatest difficulty. While the instructor conducted his classes, a pupil or some specially appointed guard kept careful watch lest the teacher be surprised by the authorities. These persecutions but served to implant in the hearts of even the children an intense hatred of Russian autocratic rule and strengthened the determination of all to overcome the obstacles which so plentifully bestrewed the path of their educational progress. Wherever it was impossible to obtain the services of instructors, their place would be taken by the mothers themselves, and this maternal devotion has been immortalized by Rimša, one of the greatest Lithuanian sculptors, in his beautiful statue of a mother teaching her brood, to which he gave the title "The Lithuanian School."²³

Abolition of Lithuanian Literature

One of the greatest calamities that befell Lithuanian education was the prohibition of literature printed in the Lithuanian language. Governor Muraviov, on January 26, 1864, prohibited the printing or possession of Lithuanian literature in Latin.²⁴ The enforcement of this prohibition inflicted still greater hardships upon the schools, which were already faced with such formidable difficulties, for it put textbooks almost altogether out of reach by

²² Lietuvių tautos istorija (245-248) by Matulaitis (Lit.).

²³ (a) Lithuania (58), Harrison (Eng.). (b) Litauen (136), by Ehret (Ger.).

²⁴ Sbornik rasporezhnyj Muravieva (191) (Rus.).

rendering their acquisition a matter of virtual impossibility. Partial alleviation of these hardships was forthcoming from Lithuanians living in Little Lithuania (Prussia) under German rule, and from those in the United States who organized societies with the special object of publishing newspapers and books and smuggling them into Lithuania. The thing that contributed most to keeping alive a national consciousness and gave strength to the oppressed people was their folk songs. They could not write, they were forbidden to read, but no one could stifle the soul's expression in song. Every occasion from birth to death, every joy and every sorrow, was celebrated in song and story. So varied and so numerous were these songs that Rev. Father Juska, who collected them, gathered more than 6,600, even then leaving many uncopied. So interesting both from the poetic and educational point of view were these pure and spontaneous lyrics that the Academy of Education of Petrograd in 1881 became interested and published 2,591 of these folk songs in the native tongue lest some of their intrinsic beauty be lost.

Notwithstanding oppression, the general culture and education of the Lithuanians was much higher and better than that of their oppressors, the Russians and Poles. In official statistics for 1897 we find that the percentage of illiterates in Poland was 60 per cent, Russia 75.80 per cent, while in oppressed Lithuania we find only 45 per cent.²⁵

Freedom of the Lithuanian Press

Russia consistently disregarded the reasonable arguments and demands of the university professors and the petitions of the people at large, that their literature might be printed in Latin. It is of record that, from 1900 to 1902 Russia, through its custom houses, confiscated and destroyed 56,000 volumes of Lithuanian books. It was only when war with Japan was imminent that Russia recognized these demands and petitions. On April 27, 1904, a proclamation permitting the printing of books in Latin was issued.²⁶

Nevertheless, during the period of suppression (1864-1904) more than 2,000 different Lithuanian editions were printed.²⁷

(To be continued)

T. KONCEVICIUS.

²⁵ Litauen (160), by Ehret (Germ.).

²⁶ Lithuania, Past and Present (63), by Harrison (Eng.).

²⁷ Zbiór Dziejów piśmiennictwa Litewskiego (65), Biżyska (Pol.).

THE JOURNALISTIC CONVENTION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

A phase of school work which is capable of assembling a convention of the size and character of the meeting held at Madison, Wisconsin, on November 27-28, 1925, deserves more than passing recognition. When 993 teachers and students, most of the latter being of high school grade, come from 21 states to represent 135 cities between Boston, Massachusetts, and Piedmont, California, and as far south as Tulsa, Oklahoma, and Knoxville, Tennessee, there results not only the world's largest journalistic meeting but also an event of significance in the study of educational aims and values.

This sixth national convention of the Central Interscholastic Press Association included also the annual meetings of the American Association of High School Teachers of Journalistic Writing, the Central Printing Teachers' Association, and the college and university delegates who formed, during the session, the National College Press Congress. In all, 224 schools and 313 school publications had representatives in attendance.

The University of Wisconsin was sponsor of the convention, as it is also of the Central Interscholastic Press Association, commonly referred to as the C. I. P. A. For those who have not been following the rapid development of school journalism,¹ it might be well to state here that this organization, founded by 63 school publications in 1921, has developed into an association which on September 1, 1925, numbered 1,076 member publications, including on the roster every state in the Union, besides Hawaii, Alaska, and the District of Columbia.

The official organ of the C. I. P. A. is the *Scholastic Editor*, a monthly magazine, professional in appearance and tone, which aims to give specific and technical help on all problems connected with school publications. Its editor, Prof. Edward Marion Johnson of the University of Wisconsin, is also managing director

¹ Cf. Elbert K. Fretwell and Marion O'Neil, "High School Journalism Bibliography." *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 26, No. 1, September, 1924, pp. 65-73.

Cf. O. F. Nixon, "Student Publications in High Schools." *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. 47, No. 6, December, 1923, pp. 45-47, 128.

of the C. I. P. A. He states that it "is the only publication with a national circulation devoted exclusively to the interests of school journalism that is made self-supporting by its circulation, and that is not subsidized by commercial interests."² Member publications are entitled to the *Scholastic Editor*, to participation in the annual convention, and to the critical service of publication contests. These contests provide for a thorough analysis and criticism of the publication entered and show on a detailed score card the rating received on each feature considered for the final grade.

Such is the background of organization and purpose against which we view the convention and its proceedings. And in this brief survey, we shall look for evidence of present tendencies and movements rather than for detailed treatment of any particular topic. The program consisted of general convocations, interspersed with sectional meetings conducted by experts in their respective fields. During the two days, 106 addresses were given by 53 speakers, including such nationally known journalists as President Glenn Frank of the University of Wisconsin; Clyde R. Miller, director of publications in the schools of Cleveland, Ohio; Dr. Willard G. Bleyer, director of the course in journalism at the University of Wisconsin, and author of the chief journalism textbooks now in use in colleges and universities; Prof. Lawrence Murphy, director of the course in journalism at the University of Illinois; and Prof. H. E. Birdsong, director of the journalism department of Butler University.

In the multitude of words which provided interchange of thought and experience, as well as in the general policy which determined arrangements for the convention, four basic propositions were being constantly stressed. These were: (1) the school publication can be made valuable to the school and to the students;³ (2) courses in journalistic writing are being incor-

² Edward Marion Johnson, "What C. I. P. A. Offers You." *The Scholastic Editor*, Vol. 5, No. 1, October, 1925, p. 11.

³ Cf. W. C. Reavis, "Student Publications in High Schools." *School Review*, Vol. 30, pp. 514-520.

Cf. H. N. Sherwood, "The Value of High School Publications." *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*, Vol. 67, pp. 20-21.

Cf. Joseph A. Thalheimer, "School Publications." *Education*, Vol. 44, pp. 429-436.

porated into the curriculum, thus gradually withdrawing publication work from the category of extra-curricular activity; (3) these courses in journalistic writing should be primarily cultural, and not vocational; and (4) college departments of journalism should give extension service to high schools.

The first of these principles was formally presented by Dr. John Guy Fowlkes of the Department of Education, University of Wisconsin, in the address given at the opening convocation. Speaking on the subject, "The Place of Publications in the Life of a School," Dr. Fowlkes pointed out the value of a school publication as a publicity medium, if it sets forth school issues and acquaints outsiders with school problems. He showed further that under proper supervision it also becomes a permanent official record of the progress and activities of the school. The speaker dwelt at greater length, however, on the compensations to the student in the way of business experience, literary opportunities, and character development. "School publications," he maintained, "offer the richest opportunity for the development of the kind of character in which self-control is an important element."

The second and third points, relating to the present status of journalistic work in high schools, were definitely formulated by the American Association of Teachers of Journalistic Writing, which met in conjunction with C. I. P. A. convention for its first annual national meeting. This new organization unanimously adopted the following resolution:⁴

That the association recommend to member schools of the C. I. P. A. that they be urged to establish courses in journalistic writing as a part of the regular English work, the emphasis in this course to be placed on the cultural rather than the vocational aspect.

It is suggested that the C. I. P. A. members aid in directing the attention of the administration of the schools to this resolution.

It is recommended that a committee be appointed from members of this association to draft minimum essentials for this course and thus aid in its standardization.

The substance of this resolution was endorsed by Dr. Willard G. Bleyer, University of Wisconsin, in a sectional discussion on

⁴ The Scholastic Editor, Vol. 5, No. 3, December, 1925, p. 21.

"The Purpose and Scope of a Course in Journalistic Writing." To prove that his views on these questions were not merely personal, the speaker began by calling attention to the following resolutions unanimously adopted by the National Council of Teachers of English in their tenth annual meeting November 25-27, 1920:^a

Resolved, That the National Council of Teachers of English, while recognizing the value of the use of journalistic types of writing in secondary schools, deprecates the designation of secondary-school classes as "journalism," or their classification as "vocational"; and further, be it

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Council high-school graduates, on the completion of such courses in journalistic writing or on the basis of work on school papers, should not be encouraged to take up newspaper work before having the liberal education and special professional training afforded by a college course.

After announcing that reprints of these resolutions might be procured after the meeting, Dr. Bleyer declared that the primary purpose of journalistic writing in high schools is effective motivation of composition work. How this motivation can be utilized during the four years of high school and how practice on the various types of journalistic writing can be distributed through the course formed the main topics of his address.

The fourth conclusion refers to the extension service college departments of journalism can give to high school students and, inversely, to the increased enrollment which will result in college and professional journalism when high school students have been interested in the possibilities of a journalistic career. That this question is considered timely and important to the directors of all schools of journalism would appear from its place on the program of the December meeting in New York City of the American Association of Teachers of Journalism and the Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism.^b

But in at least one university of the twenty in the United States which have well-organized schools or courses in journalism, the question has passed beyond the interrogative stage and is being expressed affirmatively in the more than satisfactory working of the far-reaching and enthusiastic organization we

^a The English Journal, Vol. 10, No. 1, January, 1921, p. 46.

^b Cf. Nelson Antrim Crawford, "A Problem Convention." The Journalism Bulletin, Vol. 2, No. 3, November, 1925, p. 20.

have been describing in this paper, namely, the Central Inter-scholastic Press Association. The tremendous labor of directing this association and of editing the *Scholastic Editor*, its official organ, is shouldered by the Department of Journalism of the University of Wisconsin. Why? Prof. Edward Marion Johnson gives this answer:⁷

Scholastic journalism is an influence in America so far little comprehended or understood. Numerically there are almost as many school newspapers and magazines published in the United States as there are professional newspapers. These publications so far have not approached the maximum of influence that they may exert, although taken all in all they reach a larger audience of *intelligent* readers than do most classes of general publications. It is with the hope that it may contribute in the effort to make school publications worth the time and money that they cost⁸ that the C. I. P. A. is organized and that the *Scholastic Editor* is published.

A recent magazine article entitled "Printer's Ink"⁹ came to hand just as the Madison Convention experience had crystallized into the reflections which have been presented in this paper. The point made in it is that since the press of today "rules the mind of man, . . . we must guide the press as much as possible into a channel that leads to Truth." But into this plea of a zealous priest for a more widespread and consistent use of religious and secular periodicals for diffusing the light of the gospel, this question obtrudes itself upon one's Catholic consciousness: Are Catholic colleges, as a group, alert to the possibilities of training young men and women for the apostolate of the press, directly through schools of journalism and indirectly through interesting high school students in publication work and acquainting them with the larger field of influence which will be theirs with professional training?

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Toledo, Ohio.

⁷ Edward Marion Johnson, "What C. I. P. A. Offers You." The *Scholastic Editor*, Vol. 5, No. 1, October, 1925, p. 11.

⁸ Cf. O. F. Nixon, "The Cost and Financing of Student Publications." *School Review*, Vol. 31, pp. 204-212.

⁹ The Rev. Ambrose Reger, O.S.B., *Printer's Ink*. The *Ecclesiastical Review*, Vol. 73, No. 6, December, 1925, pp. 615-620.

THE FIRST PAGE ON LOGARITHMS

Some algebras, actually used in high schools and colleges, take up the subject of logarithms before having treated of progressions. Others give first the chapter on progressions but do not mention them at all in connection with logarithms, yet logarithms are based on progressions.

All algebras start the question of logarithms with the declaration, rather than definition, that the exponent of the power of 10 which reproduces a number, is, or is called, the logarithm of that number. From this the student must have a poor idea, if any, of what a logarithm really is. He is the more puzzled when these powers of 10 are given to him in long decimal fractions.

No wonder if the near-totality of students, after having mastered, somehow, theorems and rules about logarithms, after even getting proficient enough in the use of logarithmic tables to do good work, are still wondering how this is all done and why it so happens that the results are correct. It looks to them as an unexplained trick.

The theory of logarithms rests on progressions, and may be made clear to any student in very few words, without making the subject more difficult. On the contrary, by giving first the basis or foundation of the whole subject, its component parts will be made clearer and easier.

A system of logarithms consists essentially of two progressions: one, geometrical, beginning with unity and having any common multiplier r ; the other, an arithmetical progression, formed by the natural sequence of integral numbers, its zero corresponding to unity in the geometrical progression.

Thus

r^{-2}	r^{-1}	1	r	r^2	r^3
-2	-1	0	1	2	3

constitutes the nucleus of a system of logarithms.

The common multiplier r may be any number, integral, fractional, or even incommensurable, as is actually used in Napierian Logarithms. r being the only variable, characterizes the system, and for that reason is called the base of the system. Thus we might have any number of systems, one for each value given to r . But, owing to our decimal system of numeration,

the system with base 10 is the only one used in elementary work and is called the Common or Brigg's System of Logarithms.

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} \dots\dots 10^{-2} & 10^{-1} & 1 & 10 & 10^2 & 10^3 \dots\dots \\ \dots\dots -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \dots\dots \end{array}$$

These two progressions or series, so arranged, form really the skeleton of our complete system of logarithms. It has only to be extended enough to contain, in the geometrical series, all the natural numbers between every two consecutive terms or exact powers of 10. This is done by inserting means between all consecutive terms.

The student will notice at a glance that each term of the second series is the same as the exponent of the corresponding term in the first. If he is told that every term of the arithmetical series is the logarithm of the corresponding term of the geometrical series, the famous definition will mean something clear; but it is no more a definition, it is only a consequence of the construction of the system.

It is easy to show that if we insert any number of means between two consecutive terms of the geometrical and the same number of means between the corresponding terms of the arithmetical series, the terms of the new arithmetical series will still be the same as the exponents of the corresponding terms in the geometrical series. If we insert m means between 1 and 10, the common multiplier of the new series will be given by the formula $\sqrt[m+1]{10}$, or using the notation for fractional exponents $10^{\frac{1}{m+1}}$, and our new series will be:

$$1 \quad 10^{\frac{1}{m+1}} \quad 10^{\frac{2}{m+1}} \quad 10^{\frac{3}{m+1}} \quad 10^{\frac{4}{m+1}} \quad \dots\dots 10$$

Insert m means between 0 and 1, the formula for the new difference in the new arithmetical series $\frac{1}{m+1}$ will give us the new series:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 10^{\frac{1}{m+1}} & 10^{\frac{2}{m+1}} & 10^{\frac{3}{m+1}} & \dots\dots\dots & 10 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{m+1} & \frac{2}{m+1} & \frac{3}{m+1} & \dots\dots\dots & 1 \end{array}$$

Each term of the arithmetical series is still the same as the exponent of the corresponding power of 10. The same result is

obtained by inserting the same number of means between any pair of consecutive terms in both series.

All that remains, in order to obtain a complete system of logarithms, is to insert enough means to include in the geometrical series all the natural numbers. Then, by inserting the same number of means in the arithmetical series, we will obtain their logarithms.

True enough, that method of calculating logarithms would be a long and tedious one. We have, however, other methods. Moreover, the work has been done long ago and is available to all in the logarithmic tables.

True also that we would have in the geometrical series many other terms besides the numbers of the natural sequence; but by keeping only those we need, i.e., integral numbers, or a sufficient approximation of them and also their corresponding terms in the arithmetical, i.e., their logarithms, the tables will not be necessarily bulky.

Unfortunately, the disposition adopted for tables, in order to save space, makes it difficult for students to realize that logarithmic tables are nothing but our two progressions side by side, though shortened by dropping the means useless to our purpose. The column marked *N* in the tables is the geometrical, and all the other numbers or logarithms form the arithmetical progression.

By this time the student should have a clear enough idea of what logarithms really are, and be ready to take up any remarks and theorems as generally given in all algebras.

But since it is always a great help to beginners to have something visible on which to hang up any remarks, any rule, any property or proposition offered, let them keep in sight that skeleton of the system of logarithms:

..... 10^{-3}	10^{-1}	1	10	10^2	10^3
.....-2	-1	0	1	2	3

They will not only understand better and easier, but they will see:

WHY logarithms, except those of the power of 10, must only be approximate, this being due to the use of the incommensurable quantity: $\sqrt[n+1]{10}$.

WHY the characteristic depends only on the decimal point, and

WHY the same may be negative, while the decimal part or mantissa remains positive.

WHY addition and subtraction cannot be worked by the logarithms.

WHY especially, logarithms simplify operations. *We pass from the geometrical to the arithmetical series in which operations are simpler, and then turn back to the geometrical series to read the result, and so the whole trick is explained.*

J. M. THOMAS, S.M.

SOME MIRRORS OF YOUTH—III

X

Too confident critics, certainly, have declared that the work of Paul Morand, the French writer, can have no imitators. Certainly such is not true of Shakespeare, or even Compton Mackenzie. Though he has written the finest full-length novel of adolescence, he did not write the first, nor assuredly the last. For one, Mr. Beverley Nichols has retraced the Oxford scene with evident indebtedness to "Sinister Street," with the result that while "Patchwork" is admittedly derivative, it is still authentic, and a "fair and flagrant thing" belonging to youth, to enthusiasm, and to impulse. There are many novels of English school-life which are every whit as interesting psychologically as Mackenzie, and yet are compact within narrower borders.

XI

For instance, Mr. Arnold Lunn's "The Harrovians" infuriated a righteous English reading public by its insinuations that the boy in the English public schools was anything but the traditional cricket-playing youngster, learning on the playing grounds of school to man the British Empire; by its implications that anyone at Harrow or Eton could possibly be miserable. Lunn, whose career, whatever else it has been, has been characterized by independent thinking, showed a motherless youth, Peter O'Neill, a creature of some fineness and great sincerity, struggling against the artificialities of what might be called statutory culture. His method is not at all that of Mackenzie; by a succession of quick, powerful strokes he gives us his masterful characterizations. His minor characters are the very perfection of the satiric phrase—a curate, thus characterized, "a spiritual peerage his ambition, a curacy his fate"; Peter's aunt, a lady who protests against "the vulgar abuse of dukes," and finally "a bishop who masticates his syllables." But Lunn discards satire when he approaches the spiritual reactions of his hero. Most important boy problems come in for treatment here, the treatment is straightforward and direct, and there is no conscious attempt evidently for anything but to set forth the whole truth. The fact that the book arraigns certain faults in the

English system of education has led to its wide use as a campaign document by enemies of the public schools. All systems of education must to some extent put the exceptional student in jeopardy to save the ordinary one, and it is not strange that Lunn sees nailed over the door of every public school the invisible motto, "Conform, or be kicked." There is a great deal of boy psychology in this book, and there is inferred a great deal of psychology of education and of educational systems. It certainly fulfills the definition of the novel as a "criticism of life."

XII

There is much the same thoughtful and deliberate consideration of education as a preparation for complete living in Mr. Ivor Brown's "Years of Plenty." Brown's views of life are more romantic than those of Lunn: indeed the author of "The Harrovians" has no more romance in him than Euripides. In Brown's Martin Leigh we meet again a youth, who in addition to the ordinary problems of life endeavors to solve difficulties suggesting themselves to an artist's nature. But when we come out into the lucid atmosphere of Mr. E. F. Benson's "David Blaize" we meet a book of first-hand value and of first-rate importance.

Like the poetry of Wordsworth, one might at first sight be inclined to underestimate "David Blaize," since it has that quality of all great art in that it is the expression of the great commonplace. In supremely natural surroundings is traced the development of a normal boy at an English school. Doubtless much reminiscence went into the making of the story, but it is not mere memory—it is the fiction, heightened and transfigured by creative imagination into an air of transparent lucidity. For pure literature it certainly stands in the first rank of all the books produced by the industrious and ingenuous Benson family. As the incidents occur one after another, they ring like authentic coinage, they make the whole as enthralling as a well-written biography could be.*

* Among books of this sort, one can see how enthralling biography can become when it is written as fiction, in the "Life of Father William Doyle," by Alfred O'Rahilly, and how delightful fiction can become when it is written as biography by reading "The Life of John William Walshe," by Montgomery Carmichael, both being studies of paramount value to a priest or teacher.

One need but refer to such incidents as David and Frank reading Swinburne together; of David's conversation with the headmaster which is a classic example of how to instruct a boy in needful knowledge and yet retain his self-respect; of the reading of Keat's "Ode to a Grecian Urn" during an hour ordinarily devoted to Greek syntax, to see what a wonderful thing education can become in the hands of persons of intelligence and sympathy. In "David Blaize" as in no other book I know, the altogether normal youngster of wholesome tastes and instincts, with a background of sensible home-training, and that perfect poise which is a native endowment, looks forth with clear, unshadowed eyes. "David Blaize" is a valuable study for anyone who wants to understand the normal boy as he really is, but it is also valuable for one who wants to understand modern English literature. This fine training it must be that is at the root of a civilization which can produce types like Julian Grenfell, Rupert Brooke, Herbert Asquith, Charles Hamilton Sorley, Harry Butters and others with such deliberate frequency.

XIII

Turning to America, we may note that the career of Booth Tarkington well illustrates the progress of American fiction since the beginning of the present century, the decline of the historic novel, the shifting of interest from the Atlantic seaboard to the Middle West, the growth of realism, the heightening of the general taste. After all on the fall day that Maurice Francis Egan tells us of in "Memories of a Happy Life," when the sheets of Mrs. E. D. E. N. Southworth's new novel blew away through the streets of Georgetown, tens of thousands of loyal American hearts all over the country stopped beating till the lost pages were found, and piled securely for their high journey to the printers. When Booth Tarkington relinquished unwillingly to the gendarmes of Paris the privilege of ruling their own city and returned to Hoosierdom to sit on a fence-rail and write "The Gentleman from Indiana"—an interesting performance in sentimental realism, yet pointing in the right direction—he brought home with him a sincere respect for the great masters of French realism—a respect too great to stoop to mere imitation. To develop his style has meant a consistent, painstaking labor of twenty-five years, yet he attained it at

last, as one can see by reading first "The Magnificent Ambersons" and then his last novel, "The Midlander," where so-called style as such drops from him without even a film of consciousness between the mind of the reader and that of the writer.

In an air of absolute normality Booth Tarkington understands and records the American youngster as no other present writer can hope to do. His young people are the very spit of nature herself. And let no one cavil at the ripples of laughter that are the inevitable accompaniment to a reading of most of his novels. It is the humor of recognition, recognition of the inexhaustible stores of goodness locked in every human heart; laughter, genuine and soul-saving—as refreshing and as ever new as sea-spray. We laugh *with* not *at* the life around us, as caught on the mirrors of his pages, and it is laughter generating deep and broad sympathies. Tarkington's views of life are as fundamentally right as the eternal hills themselves, and his laughter is that mirth which is at the heart of the universe. After all joy is much more right than sadness: we may recall how Robert Louis Stevenson at the end of "David Balfour" represents the angels not as weeping over the world and the mistakes of men, but holding their sides with uncontrollable laughter.

XIV

Compton Mackenzie gives us youth in a psychological document of first-rate importance, Lunn presents the viewpoint of adolescence in the fateful mood of the Greek tragedy, but Tarkington shows us the small boys and girls, the inept youths and gentle young girls that we see every day about us. Mr. Robert Cortes Holliday says they all owe their existence to accident. The father of them all is the small brother of Cora Madison, in "The Flirt," Hedrick the Pest—domestic savage of twelve yet a real boy, who suggested to Tarkington the infinite riches in the little room of childhood. Eventually Booth Tarkington may be best remembered as the man who brought the small boy into literature, but he must certainly at any rate be given credit as the creator of young types, or rather individuals in which the type is realized—Penrod Schofield, Sam Williams, the colored boys, Herman and Verman, Willie Baxter and his little sister, the terrible Jane; brave Alice Adams, gentle Julia, perjured Clarence, and many others.

The great virtue of Booth Tarkington as a novelist of youth is that he directs attention to children who have generally been passed over by psychologist and novelist, grubby little boys, and little girls with pig-tails, in the middle grades who are in fact generally passed over by educators as well. But the man who can read or even re-read "Penrod" without a deeper interest in the problems of the child, or lay the book down without a deeper understanding of their importance probably does not exist. For instance the chapter on "Soaring" which describes Penrod's day-dream:

In his mind he extended his arms gracefully, at a level with his shoulders, and delicately paddled the air with his hands, which at once caused him to be drawn up out of his seat and elevated gently to a position about midway between the floor and the ceiling, where he came to an equilibrium and floated; a sensation not the less exquisite because of the screams of his fellow-pupils appalled by the miracle. Miss Spence herself was amazed and frightened, but he only smiled down carelessly upon her when she commanded him to return to earth; and then, when she climbed upon a desk to pull him down, he quietly paddled himself a little higher, leaving his toes just out of her reach. Next he swam a few slow somersaults to show his mastery of the new art, and with the shouting of the dumfounded scholars ringing in his ears, turned on his side and floated swiftly out of the window, immediately rising above the house-tops while people in the street below him shrieked, and a trolley car stopped dead in wonder.

This whole chapter contains hints for teachers and preachers who hope to be able to hold the attention of children. Much the same can be said of "Penrod and Sam." If anyone has had the misfortune never to have been a child, he can find his lost childhood here.

In "Seventeen" and in "Clarence" we are confronted by problems of a different nature, in the latter real tragedy, in the former the gawky period of adolescence. No mention of Tarkington can hope to be complete which does not take into account "Alice Adams." A quite normal girl of the lower middle classes, you can see her like dozens of times a day in every mid-western city; she chances all in endeavoring to win for herself a lover who is above her in station, and loses all—in a material way. Yet in her very rejection and defeat she finds salvation, and when we see her mounting the dark stairway leading to the business col-

lege, and read that the ascent was difficult but that at the end she came out into a corridor filled with light, we are somehow made to feel that there has been here a spiritual gain that makes everything else negligible.

XV

At least a dozen so-called "college novels" claiming to give the "inside dope" on college life have been heralded abroad in the last few years, and yet in both form and content most of them are sadly deficient; they are crude and flippant, even when otherwise unobjectionable. The book which set the fashion has so far been indubitably the best of its kind, and though whether that best has been any too good many will question, still any account of contemporary fiction dealing with what young men are thinking about today is certainly not complete without a mention of "This Side of Paradise," by F. Scott Fitzgerald.

Despite a certain callow immaturity, despite the fact that almost everyone "in the know" has disagreed violently with "This Side of Paradise" from one viewpoint or another; in spite of a certain artificiality, and a shameless caricaturing of people to whom Scott Fitzgerald owed a great deal, still the novel remains one of the most brilliant and best-written novels of the last decade, sparkling with epigram like a court wit, and for all its sophistication revealing an unexpected view of things. There is certainly a great gulf stretched between novels like this and the college novels of the last generation: for Owen Johnson's "Stover at Yale" it was the very majesty of doggishness to stand in mid-campus in the small hours of the morning, singing tenor songs to the stars, and later meeting life fortified with a college pipe, a college sweater, and a college song. In "This Side of Paradise," we meet Amory, the green-eyed child of the Blaines of Lake Geneva, Wisconsin, who grew up on a diet of acquiescent bell-boy's legs in the Waldorf, and at ten took red-hot baths while his mother read him sections of the "Fetes Galantes," who spent a few winters in Minneapolis and an eastern "prep" school, and then went to Princeton.

I do not wish to enlarge here upon an evident fallacy at the heart of the book, the assumption that experience of a certain sort is a necessary preparation for life, the tendency to push

religion into a subservient place,' the tendency to solve every problem on a social level, and yet there is no other book which gives so clearly the views of the contemporary collegian. Certainly great portions of the book are derivative, yet there is a mood, a golden atmosphere of endeavor that is Icarian youth itself, youth which fears, believes, hesitates and yet longs to test its wings against the sun. Certainly for the moralist alone there is a great deal to learn from the incidents such as "Amory Sees the Devil," "The Debutante," and the Monsignor's funeral where he felt as he was about to enter the labyrinth of the late twenties, "an immense desire to give people a sense of security."

XVI

Without doubt more representative books and more typical incidents could be presented than it has been possible to treat of in the brief sketch of this literature in these scattered notes. The reflection of adolescence in fiction is a rich and practically unworked field for the psychologist as well as for the literary craftsman, and here, of course, it has been impossible to do more than merely skim the surface. Without having our list grow to any such dimensions as a Homeric catalogue of ships, however, it may be interesting to suggest a few books in this field which are not alone good literature or good psychology but both. It might, indeed, be just as well for every reader to gather his own truth and beauty wherever he may, to beat his own path from one author to another like the wandering Trojans finding the golden bough in the wood, and then allowing themselves to be led on from one golden tree to another till they find themselves in another world. Some of the books which the present writer has found the most interesting and believes to be the most valuable are sketched in the following paragraphs:

Unquestionably they do these things better in France. For the best writers in France are most select and generous, chief in this, the psychological novel. It was in France that the novel of

¹ Something which FitzGerald's hero could never accomplish. One of his friends in the book writes to him: "that half-miraculous sense by which you detect evil, it's the half-realized fear of God in your heart." That transition Scott FitzGerald seems now to have successfully accomplished, as he writes in a recent story: "There is a whole class of gorgeous things in life that God doesn't have anything to do with."

psychology had its birth, and in France that it has been explored to its utmost. The autobiographical novels of Joris Karl Huysmans are enduring instances, especially "A Rebours," "En Route," and "L'Oblat." Stendhal carried the development further in "Rouge et Noir" and "La Chartreuse de Parme" to which incidentally Compton Mackenzie has acknowledged his indebtedness. Today we have among contemporary Frenchmen to choose from—Rolland, with "Jean Christophe" from the man's point of view, and "Lucie," a similar panorama of a girl's life now in process of being written; and Valery Larbaud, who in "The Journal of Archibald Olson Barnabooth" gives us a fictional diary of a wealthy young cosmopolite, which has been called a prose "poem of the inaccessible." Valery Larbaud is hardly as well known in English-speaking countries as he deserves to be, since he has done yeoman labor as the French translator of Coventry Patmore, Walt Whitman and Samuel Butler; but he deserves high mention here not only for the Journal of Barnabooth but also for the exquisite portraits of young girls and children he has given us in "Amants, Heureux Amants . . ." and "Enfantines." Those who like Henry James and Dostoiiewsky may be interested in Marcel Proust's "Swann's House" and "Within a Budding Grove," both of which are now accessible in Scott Moncrieff's distinguished translations. Andre Gide is an example of a writer who, in middle age, suddenly became fashionable. His "La Porte Etroite" describes the reactions of a young Frenchman brought up under strict Puritan restraint in language of delicacy and distinction. Raymond Escholier's "The Illusion" has been deservedly popular since its publication four or five years ago. Of course all the later works of Paul Bourget, and with less art those of his assiduous camp-follower, Rene Bazin, aim never to present the brutal fact but always its impression upon the observer. Among the ultra-moderns may be mentioned, with some reservations, the work of Paul Morand, who seems to have evolved for himself a new literary form that fits in somewhere between the descriptive idyl and the short-story. His pictures of shell-shocked European youth are sometimes unpleasant, but they seem to be definitely cut to a post-war pattern of European living.

As regards the Italian literature on the subject there is one

* For example, Rose Lourdin, and the boy, Milou.

book of English sketches upon Italian children that no one who is Catholic in religion or taste ought to miss—"In His Own Image," by Baron Corvo (William John Rolfe). Every teacher will be able to understand the better her little children of Italian parentage who has read these mildly humorous, finely wrought sketches of child life. Novelists of Irish life have generally been too much interested in other problems to attack the subject of adolescence, but a genuine though slender sketch of it exists in Sheehan's "Geoffrey Austin, Student." (James Joyce's "Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man" is not true to anything except perhaps morbid psychology.)

Turning to English letters above all, of course, must stand Compton Mackenzie; and near him Arnold Lunn for his "The Harrovians"; Ivor Brown with "Years of Plenty"; and E. F. Benson with a number of volumes the best of which are "David Blaize"; "David and the Blue Door," which reflects David's childhood; and the recent "David Blaize of King's." Robert Hugh Benson, his gifted brother, the Monsignor Benson, we all read ten years ago, should be remembered if for nothing else by "None Other Gods," in which the mystical *eclosion* of a soul is treated with more fulness and with equal beauty to anything of this sort in modern literature. Certain sketches by Aldous Huxley, almost the whole output of Beverley Nichols; "The Hill," a novel of school-boy life of exceptional power and distinction, by Horace Annesley Vachell; certain novels of Archibald Marshall; and at least one novel by a fifteen-year-old boy, "The Loom of Youth," by Alec Waugh, should be included in every bibliography of school-boy and college fiction. Father Martindale himself years ago found time to do a little volume of sketches,⁹ which, if Catholics have forgotten, such critics as Floyd Dell acclaim the beauty and worth of. Likewise no study of school life would be complete without Walter Pater's "Marius the Epicurean," which represents not nearly so much

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what the young Roman of the Empire was like, as what Pater believed the young university man he was teaching should aim at in life and religion. An almost forgotten book, along this line, is likewise Canon William Barry's "Arden Massiter" written many years ago. Some one is sure some of these days to discover this and the other early novels of Canon Barry, and give them the warm praise that has long been their due. Sir James M. Barrie's "Sentimental Tommie" as well as some of his plays, say, "Alice Sit by the Fire," show an author as conversant with the real child as we would expect the author of "Peter Pan" to be. All these, and there has as yet been no mention of Henry James's "Roderick Hudson," or the fine analytic craftsmanship of George Meredith in "Harry Richmond" and "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel," or Samuel Butler's "Way of All Flesh"—whose cynical tone is yet unable to obscure its greatness. We have not mentioned Catholic writers as such, but we may well close this paragraph with a reference to the adolescents found in the novels of John Ayscough, that painstaking carver in old ivories, who has always seemed to us a ghost of Jane Austen in the robes of a porporato. Arnold Lunn has hammered his figure of Peter O'Neill in "The Harrovians," as it were out of living bronze; John Ayscough works with more delicate tools but his figures are nevertheless as clear, as definite, and even though a little idealized here and there, in the main quite as real. In "Dromina," to take only one book, the figures of Enid, Fergus, Ludovic, and Enrico stand out as distinctly as in Jane Austen, even though the episodic treatment of the book as a whole is enough to dampen the enthusiasm of any but his most abandoned admirers.¹⁰

XVII

Among the new realists in America we have spoken of Booth Tarkington and F. Scott Fitzgerald. Harry Leon Wilson has at least one novel which is worthy to stand beside the "Seventeen" of Booth Tarkington, and that is "Merton of the Movies," whose truthfulness has been acclaimed by its instant and tre-

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mendous success on the stage and screen in the capable hands of Mr. Glenn Hunter.

Among a few of the many others are the books of William John Locke, in particular, "Fortunate Youth"; Floyd Dell's "Moon Calf"; Harold Frederic's "The Damnation of Theron Ware"—a strong novel that the seminarian or clergyman will be glad to have read; Samuel Merwin's "Henry Is Twenty," and other novels of a similar strain; Dr. Weir Mitchell's "Hugh Wynne;" Willa Cather's Pulitzer Prize performance, "One of Ours" for some valuable pages; one novel by Joseph Hergesheimer, "The Bright Shawl," in which a youth goes down to Cuba and for a while wears the bright shawl of romance; certain novels of college life, with hosts of stories up and down the land from Robert Gerould and Struthers Burt to Clarence Buddington Kelland and a score of minor poets turned fictional autobiographers.

Within the compass of these pages it has been manifestly impossible to do anything but suggest the rich vein and pockets of child and adolescent psychology that run through contemporary literature. We have spoken with particular reference to fiction, but it is possible to gather fine things in the other literary forms as well—in drama which, as it were, enshrines the splendor of action, and in poetry, which by its very nature is the blossom of youth. In passing, one name craves mention, that of A. E. Housman, whose "Shropshire Lad" has been one of the most popular collections of poetry among the young of any age, and whose context and spirit has been woven warp and woof into the "minds and marrows" of the now notorious younger generation.

XVIII

Life is, of course, more real and red-blooded than books could ever hope to be, yet when Robert Louis Stevenson wrote that fine sentence he also had in mind the larger truth that where life is lived at its fullest and best it is ministered to and enriched by books. And this because for most of us Memory at its best is but a failing candle. The mother remembering her child stores away some keep-sake to stay the advances of corroding time. But even keep-sakes become outworn things, and after that even the eyes and finally the heart of memory fails. And here perhaps

is the reason in a nutshell why the novel can help the priest and educator a long way. The novel is art and art is the only force able to reconstruct life with anything like completeness, that can restore and preserve the eternal *now*. To effect timeliness, it lifts things into a region of timeliness. Thus the mocking laughter of Aristophanes, the tears of Virgil, the honor of Lovelace are secure, secure at least as long as words shall last.

The Mirrors of Memory strain toward and lose the shape of a passer-by almost as rapidly as it is registered, but *here* (in these contemporary novels of childhood and adolescence) fashioned, so to say, by white magic are Mirrors of Art which not only show to grown-ups who look in them the ghosts of their dead selves, but which catch and hold with sincerity, truth and surprising beauty the glance, the form, the very feature of the face of childhood and the heart of youth.

SPEER STRAHAN.

CLASSICAL SECTION

This section aims first of all to act as a bureau of information for teachers of the Classics, particularly those of Catholic schools. Questions sent to me will be answered in these columns or by personal letter; or they will be turned over to persons fully qualified to give them proper consideration. It aims also to keep its readers informed of the most important movements and events in the world of the Classics, especially such as bear on the teaching of Latin and Greek in secondary schools.

Notes on Ecclesiastical Latin (Continued)

V. The Use of Moods (Continued)

3. Infinitive (Continued).

(b) The Infinitive for the Genitive of the Gerund.

Expressions like the following: Arnobius VI, 18, *ius habent relinquere* (= classical *relinquendi*), are common in Ecclesiastical Latin. This construction has its origin in the classical use of the infinitive as the subject of the verb "to be," in such expressions as *satius est*, etc., and in certain expressions involving a noun and the verb "to be" used as the equivalent of a simple verb, as *consilium est* (= *decrevi*), *tempus est* (= *nunc decet*), *mos est mihi* (= *soleo*). We are all familiar with the unusual use that poets made of the infinitive with *amor*, *modus*, *potestas*, *timor*. Cf. Vergil Aeneid II, 10: *Sed si tantus amor casus cognoscere nostro*. . . . This poetic influence also contributed to the extended use of the infinite noted above.

(c) Present for Future Infinitive after Certain Verbs.

If the action introduced by a verb is to be consummated in the future, classical Latin usually employs the future rather than the present infinitive. However, by analogy with the classical construction after verbs like *credere*, and *cogitare*, Ecclesiastical Latin often employs the present infinitive even after such verbs as *sperare*, *spondere*, and *confidere*. Thus:

a quo speramus utrumque, et mortem cruciabilem fugere et vitae aeternitate donari. . . .

quae sese spondeant facere. . . .

quam vos habere confiditis immortalitatem.

hi . . . *suam voluntatem facere repromittunt*.

(d) *Infinitive for a Subordinate Clause introduced by a Conjunction, or for ad and the Gerundive (Gerund).*

We shall see presently that the infinitive with a subject accusative after verbs of "saying" and "believing" steadily loses ground in late Latin. On the other hand, after verbs of "wishing," "praying," "commanding" (except *iubere*), "effort," and "prohibiting" the infinitive construction more and more displaces the subordinate clauses usual in classical Latin. This development is due to the influence of the Latin poets who always have made frequent use of this infinitive. St. Cyprian, St. Jerome, St. Augustine, Arnobius, and Gregory of Tours, all show this influence.

The infinitive with verbs of "demanding" is for the most part rare in classical Latin. But note the following gathered at random from late Latin:

sed neque illud dici aut audire deosco.

nosse inferos expetivit.

audire a vobis exposcimus . . . facturine istud sitis.

Quarere followed by the infinitive is a construction adopted by Latin prose from the time of the Empire on. Thus:

Omnis enim qui quaerit alicuius numinis impetrare responsum.

The influence of poetry may be seen in the use of the infinitive after the following verbs:

suadere: rationem te esse mortalibus imeptissimis suades.

hortari: quid vos subigit, quid hortatur maledicere . . . ?

relinquere (in sense of *permittere*): *fatuitatem relinquite volutari.*

ridere: quae nobis dici pronuntiarique ridetis.

vitare: in quae simulacra obscena deicere neque metuunt neque metuunt neque vitant.

dare: et postquam illi datum est caelum diemque conspicere.

detrectare: detrecto enim dicere caecitatem.

recusare: si animi nostri mentem non recusatis audire, etc.

(e) *Infinitive in indirect Discourse without the Subject Accusative.*

It is well known that in direct statements after verbs of saying, believing, knowing, etc., classical Latin generally employs the subject accusative with the infinitive. Only rarely is this subject accusative omitted. The Latin poets of all periods and late Latin prose writers, however, employ this construction very

freely, even when the subject of the infinitive is other than that of the verb on which it depends. Thus,

quia vobis (eum) immortalitatem ferre . . . suasi.

si modo esse perpetuum (se) cogitat.

opem desideras tibi ferre (eum), etc.

All will be interested in the announcement that Professors Louise Pound, Kemp Malone, and Arthur Kennedy have launched a new periodical, *American Speech*. It is to be devoted to the study of linguistic usage in the United States and Canada. It will appear monthly and will contain comments on current usage, on phenomena of vocabulary, on shifting pronunciation, on the lore of place names; studies in style, in local dialect, in slang, in the influence of foreign languages, etc. This new periodical is planned to interest both scholars and the general public. The first number appeared in October, 1925, and is quite readable. Special attention is called to the bibliographical department.

The suggestion has been made that it is quite practical to have pupils learn the preposition in the phrases in which they are likely to meet them, instead of learning them as separate words; for example, in *aqua*, in *oppidum*, *ad terram*, *ex sitva*, *ab viro*, *sine mora*, *propter periculum*, etc.

Shortly after the murder of Giacomo Matteotti in Rome, the *Opposition* party seceded from the Italian Parliament or, as this step came to be designated, "repaired to the Aventine." The *Manchester Guardian* comments upon the incident as follows:

Every schoolboy remembers how the Roman plebs, exasperated by the arrogance of the patricians, abandoned Rome and retired to the Aventine Hill. To this great event in Roman history the secession of the Italian Parliament has been compared half jeeringly, but also half seriously, because nothing pleases the Italians more, in their present mood, than to discover somewhere an historical continuity extending from ancient to modern Rome.

The following remarks from Miss M. M. Kurtz, of Reading, Pa., may be of interest to our teachers of Latin:

I teach in a girls' high school where the eternal feminine is always in evidence. Clothes are always an absorbing topic of

conversation. So, in our Latin Club we found an excellent way to capitalize this interest in wearing apparel.

When it was our turn to put on a general assembly program, we had the whole-hearted support of each and every girl in getting up a Roman fashion show, modeled after one presented recently by the buyers of a large department store.

The girls worked in pairs, one acting as the model to demonstrate the toga, paenula, tunic, sandals, headdress, and manner of wearing hair, etc., while the other girl explained to the audience the way of making the garments, and how they were worn. The models paced the platform with all the assurance of real Roman senators and ladies, while the audience, especially those who had never studied Latin, took in each and every detail with absorbing interest.

Dr. Leon B. Richardson, professor of chemistry in Dartmouth College, in response to a request from the president of Dartmouth College, has just published an elaborate report on the present condition of college studies. On pages 42 and 43, Prof. Richardson, *a professor of science, not a professor of classics*, strikingly analyzes and emphasizes the principal intellectual and moral reason why Latin is so important in preparation for success in college studies generally.

In fact, the presence of Latin in the curriculum of the high school is the saving grace of the situation. A measure of indulgence will, I think, be granted to a teacher of chemistry by his classical colleagues if he greets with a certain ribald mirth some of their claims of results which come from the study of Latin. But it is clear to most people, even to chemists, that the study of Latin gives four years of thorough training, calling for mental concentration and effort; that it is "a tough job," and that it is within the capacity of the school to see that it is well done; and that it is almost the only subject remaining in the high-school curriculum of which that can be said. The greater success in college work which, as a class, those students who enter with the classical training achieve over those who do not have it, is to be attributed not so much to the nature of the subject as to the fact that it has presented a task which has required concentration and hard effort for its solution. So other hard tasks are attacked with less mental shrinking and are carried through with more resolution."

Dean West calls this "a gratifying tribute from an independent investigator" and remarks that the "nature of the subject" is, of course, only one element, though an important element in the value of Latin, but that a subject which requires "concentration

and hard effort" is evidently a subject much needed in our American education.

At a meeting of the Maine Teachers' Association held in Portland, October 29-30, a committee, appointed last year for the purpose, reported on the present status of Greek in the schools of the state. The purpose of the program this year was to arouse interest in a revival of Greek in the schools. At present there is very little Greek in the secondary schools of Maine. There is, however, an increasing interest in Greek study in the colleges. The point was established that if Greek is needed it should come in the preparatory school in order that advantage may be taken of the results of such study after the student gets into college.

"Little Studies in Greek for the Latin Teacher" have now reached Number IV, and seem to be admirably suited to achieve their purpose. These pamphlets cost ten cents apiece and will not exceed fourteen in number. They may be procured from "The Service Bureau for Classical Teachers," Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Frances E. Sabin, Director.

Miss Sabin also announces the publication of Leaflet II, a new list of material supplied by the Service Bureau; price, 5 cents.

Miss Sabin promises as soon to appear the following important pamphlets:

I. Important Roman Festivals—a summary of the contents of Warde Fowler's Roman Festivals, organized for the use of the Latin teacher. Prepared by Audre Mae Jones, Columbus, Ohio.

II. Cicero's Literary Style as a Basis for the Study of English Expression. Prepared by Dr. Frances P. Donnelly, S.J., Saint Andrew-on-Hudson, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

ROY J. DEFERRARI

AFFILIATED HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE SECTION

OFFICIAL

The list of books given here is that temporarily approved for the courses in the Polish language and literature. This list has been drawn up with due regard to the textbooks presently in use in some of the affiliated schools. It is now becoming easier to procure Polish textbooks, and hence attention is hereby directed to some more recent works as well as more recent editions of standard texts. It is hoped that this brief list may prove helpful to teachers in making selections. It should also be remembered that this list pretends to be neither complete nor exclusive.

The following is a list of grammars and texts on syntax, rhetoric, versification, etc.

Dzierżanowska, Niewiadomska i Warnkówna. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Fourteenth edition. Gebethner i Wolff. Warszawa.

A. A. Kryński i M. Z. Kryński. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego Szkolna*. Eleventh edition. M. Arct. Warszawa, 1923.

Małecki. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Thirteenth edition. Wydawnictwo Książek Szkolnych Zakładu Narodowego Im. Ossolińskich. Lwów, 1919.

Ładoń. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Polish Publishing Co. Chicago, 1920.

Szopiński. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Rok I, II, III i IV. Polish American Publishing Co. Chicago, 1915.

Zapała. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Polish Publishing Co. Chicago.

Jeske. *Gramatyka Języka Polskiego*. Polish American Publishing Co. Chicago.

Bogucka, Niewiadomska i Warnkówna. *Podręcznik do ćwiczeń ortograficznych i systematycznego dyktanda*. Seventeenth edition. Gebethner i Wolff. Warszawa.

Wł. Weychert-Szymanowska. *Stylistyka. Teorya Poezji i Prozy*. Fifth edition. M. Arct. Warszawa, 1920.

Komarnicki. *Stylistyka Polska*. Fourth edition. Gebethner i Wolff. Kraków, 1922.

Galle. *Stylistyka*. M. Arct. Warszawa, 1906.

Korotyński. *Stylistyka Języka Polskiego*. Pajewski. Warszawa, 1889.

For students who know English but are beginners in Polish

the Elementary Polish Grammar by Paul Ssymank is recommended. It is published by Julius Groos, Heidelberg. 1921.

Teachers may find it advantageous to consult a larger work: Gramatyka Języka Polskiego, by Stanisław Szober. Second edition. Książnica Polska Tow. Nauczycieli Szkół Wyższych. Lwów, 1923.

The following is a list of collections of prose and poetry for reading:

Czubek i Zawiliński. Wypisy Polskie. Polish Publishing Co. Chicago, 1918.

Bogucka i Niewiadomska. Wypisy Polskie. Gebethner i Wolff. Warszawa, 1906.

Próchnicki. Wypisy Polskie. Wende i Spółka. Warszawa, 1908.

Próchnicki. Wzory Poezyi i Prozy. Wende i Spółka. Warszawa, 1906.

Chociszewski i Rzepecka. Piśmiennictwo Polskie oraz Życiorysy Naszych Znakomitszych Pisarzy. Fourth edition. Poznań, 1912.

Próchnicki i Wojciechowski. Wypisy Polskie dla Szkół Średnich. Książnica Polska Towarzystwa Nauczycieli Szkół Wyższych. Lwów, 1924.

Galle. Wypisy Polskie na klazę V. M. Arct. Warszawa, 1922.

Galle. Wypisy Polskie na klazę VI. M. Arct. Warszawa, 1924.

Tarnowski i Wójcik. Wypisy Polskie I. Third edition. Tow. Nauczycieli Szkół Wyższych. Lwów, 1903.

Tarnowski i Próchnicki. Wypisy Polskie II. Third edition. Tow. Nauczycieli Szkół Wyższych. Lwów, 1906.

Also the following individual texts in convenient little volumes are recommended:

Biblioteczka Narodowa edited by Henryk Galle and published by M. Arct. Warszawa.

The collection called Książeczki. Wydawnictwo Macierzy Polskiej. Lwów.

Arcevdziela Polskich i Obcych Pisarzy. Feliks West. Brody.

Biblioteka Powszechna as well as Charakterystyki Literackie. W. Zukerkandel. Lwów—Złoczów.

NEWS ITEMS

Notre Dame Academy of Cincinnati reports among its distinguished visitors during the fall term The Very Reverend Martin Bronsgeest, S.J., of St. Xavier's, and Reverend John Bauer of the Maryknoll Mission Band. Father Bauer has the

honor to have been enrolled as the first holder of the Blessed Julie Billart Burse. This burse of \$6,000 was given to Maryknoll by the schools under the care of the Sisters of Notre Dame of Namur.

The Senior Class of this academy visited the new power station at Columbus, Ohio. This is a good example of the proper kind of field work for the students in the Natural Science classes.

During the past few weeks a series of lectures by Mrs. Lowenstein on parliamentary procedure was given.

Word comes from The Benedictine Academy of Elizabeth, N. J., that the assistant superintendent of the schools of Bayonne, N. J., recently addressed the students on "The Benefits of a Catholic High School Education." Miss Herbert stressed the fact that religion was essential to true character formation, the goal of practical education.

Through the activities of the Society of the Propagation of the Faith the pupils of this institution are afforded many opportunities for the proper grasp and application of the truths presented in the Doctrine classes.

Most Reverend Archbishop Cieplak, the outstanding hero of the world today, was the honored guest of the Seminary of the Felician Sisters and pupils last month. He addressed the students, taking, as his topic, "Religious Vocations."

Projects in English by the members of the senior class in order to prepare and provide entertainment for the rest of the academy on such days as Hallowe'en, Thanksgiving, several of the feast days, etc., have proved of great value to the members of the class and a source of common pleasure to the school at large. The library of this institution has been enriched this year by sets of "Outlines of Knowledge," The Human Interest Library, 220 volumes of English Classics and about 25 reference books on Science and Mathematics. This academy reports a notable increase in its student body, the addition of two new teachers to its staff and the introduction of a full commercial course.

St. Joseph's Academy of St. Augustine, Fla., sends word that it can now boast of a fine swimming pool and of a combination basketball and tennis court. These new scholastic additions have already begun to show their effects in the morale of the

student body, the report goes on to say. Among the notable gifts to this school this year are to be numbered a new compound microscope and an automobile.

The academies and high schools under the care of the Sisters of Mercy as well as the other affiliated schools join with St. Mary's High School, Wilkes-Barre, Pa., in its celebration this year of its Golden Jubilee. This event was fittingly honored by the Pontifical Mass, offered by Right Reverend Bishop Hoban. Among the guests were Sister Mary Alberta, the last of the original group of eight Sisters who came to Wilkes-Barre on September 8, 1875, and Mrs. Nancy Mahoney, the sole survivor of the reception committee who received these eight pioneers. The first number of *Mercyon* of St. Mary's High School has an excellent account of the celebration.

On February 2 Bishop Dunn dedicated the New Marymount School, the gift of Mr. James Butler. The original cost of the school was \$6,000,000. The new school is located at 1028 Fifth Avenue and 84th Street, New York City.

St. Mary's Academy of Salt Lake City, Utah, is proud of its student, Miss L. Van Alstine, whose poster in the competitive contest held by the Red Cross Society was pronounced as the most original and best executed piece of work submitted. In the essay contest held under the same auspices a second honor came to St. Mary's through the work done by Miss S. Nichols.

Local Citizens of Memphis, Tenn., joined with the pupils of St. Agnes' Academy in making Education Week both impressive and instructive. Miss Catherine Craig of this Academy has been awarded a scholarship in piano given by the Milliard Foundation of New York. There were three hundred contestants in the test and thirty scholarships granted.

Mt. Mercy Novitiate of Mt. Washington, Md., reports that recently four Novices and three Postulants entered the Community. Their reception took place on the Feast of Our Lady of Mercy.

The basket-ball team of St. Cecilia's Academy of Washington, D. C., was obliged to record a victory for St. Paul's High School, another affiliated high school of the District, in its athletic history on November 8.

LEO L. McVAY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY NOTES

On January 13, 1926, the Rev. Peter Guilday, professor of church history, Catholic University, was decorated by Baron de Cartier, Belgium Ambassador, at a luncheon at the embassy, with the Order of Leopold, the Belgian Government's recognition of his service in the restoration of Louvain Library, destroyed in the World War.

Dr. Guilday, a native of Philadelphia and graduate of Louvain University, has been active on the committee raising \$1,000,000 for the restoration of the library.

The Catholic University School of Architecture has come once more into notice. A group of eleven students working in competition with other architectural schools in this country on a problem submitted by the Beaux Arts Institute of Design, of Paris, made a perfect mark, each of the eleven men receiving honors. The problem was "A Byzantine Baptistery," an archeological problem. Five were awarded medals, the remaining six receiving honorable mentions.

The University School of Architecture was honored by the Beaux Arts Institute last June when it was awarded the gold medal for excellence, conferred by the French Government. Frederick V. Murphy is the head of the department.

The Rev. John O'Grady, associate professor of sociology at the Catholic University, has recently returned to the campus after a journey across continent. Dr. O'Grady went to San Francisco at the invitation of the archbishop of that archdiocese to make a personal survey of the organization of Catholic charity institutions. Dr. O'Grady is the Washington director of the archdiocese unit of the National Conference of Catholic charities.

The Catholic University Library has been enriched by a copy of the Pictorial Life of St. Francis of Assisi, by the famous South American painter, P. Subercaueaux Errazuriz. This splen-

did quarto volume is the gift of Mgr. Phillip Bernardini, professor of canon law at the university.

Several incunabula volumes have recently been donated to the library, among them one of the earliest printed editions (Cologne, 1507) of the *Imitation of Christ*, richly annotated by a contemporary hand. This little work is a choice specimen of the printer's art and of the average Italian handwriting of the early sixteenth century. Another of these early printed books bears the date of Venice, 1495. It is a very small volume on the *Art of Dying Well*.

CORPORATE COLLEGES OF ST. LOUIS UNIVERSITY

All of the Catholic colleges in the Archdiocese of St. Louis, nine in all, have merged into an organization to be known as "The Corporate Colleges of St. Louis University." Announcement to this effect has been made by the Rev. Charles H. Cloud, S.J., president of the university, with an explanation of what the merger means.

The institutions included in the merger are: Fontbonne College, College of the Sacred Heart, Notre Dame Junior College, St. Louis University College of Arts and Sciences, Chaminade College, Maryhurst Normal School, St. Mary's Junior College, St. Mary's Seminary, and Webster College.

The corporate colleges will be governed by an Administrative Board composed of two representatives of each of the colleges together with President Cloud and Archbishop Glennon. Commenting on the merger President Cloud said:

It is a great privilege that St. Louis University is now enabled to extend to the corporate colleges its local leadership in the field of Catholic college education. The university wishes to facilitate the interchange of staff members, to assist the various corporate colleges in the standardization of their courses and to put at the disposal of these colleges the administrative function of its officials and faculty. The staffs of these various colleges will hereafter enjoy the prerogatives of university appointment and degrees will be conferred conjointly from the corporate colleges and from St. Louis University with such limitations as the Board of Trustees of the university and of the respective corporate colleges may see fit to impose consistent with the requirements of the standardizing agencies to which St. Louis University belongs.

NATIONAL KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION

We have been notified that the National Kindergarten Association has recently appointed several new field secretaries, and the present list is as follows:

Colorado Field Secretary, Miss Grace Leathers, 111 West 8th Street, Pueblo.

Illinois Field Secretary, Miss Margaret Brayton, 6514 Ellis Avenue, Chicago.

Kansas Field Secretary, Mrs. June R. Chapman, 1725 Lane Street, Topeka.

Louisiana Field Secretary, Mrs. Charles V. Porter, 701 Travis Street, Shreveport.

Missouri Field Secretary, Mrs. Jessie E. Wellman, La Grange.

New Mexico Field Secretary, Miss Birdie Adams, Silver City.

North Dakota Field Secretary, Mrs. Louise Simenson, Valley City.

Wisconsin Field Secretary, Mrs. I. G. Davis, Room 105, Bascom Hall, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Texas Field Secretary, Miss Grace Montague, 2233 Sixth Avenue, Fort Worth.

Rhode Island Field Secretary, Mrs. Arthur L. Smith, "The Birches," Barrington.

Anyone wishing to promote the establishment of a new kindergarten in a school of any community may obtain blank petitions, leaflets or charts by addressing the field secretary of the state in which the school is located. Those who live in states where no field secretaries have yet been appointed may obtain assistance by writing to the headquarters of the National Kindergarten Association at 8 West Fortieth Street, New York, N. Y.

NOTES FROM CURRENT PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Principles of Education

The Curriculum Revision Movement. Ellsworth Warner, Educational Review, January, 1926. An excellent summary of the work that has been done during the past few years in the matter of revising the curriculum, both as to content and as to method.

Philosophy of Negro Education. F. C. Summer, Educational Review, January, 1926. The author calls attention to the need of recognizing the fact that the negro is on a lower cultural level than the white and therefore needs a different type of education. He commends the work of Booker T. Washington

and makes a plea for the ethical and religious training of the colored people.

World Civics. Arthur W. Dunn, School and Society, December 12, 1925. The writer points out the desirability of training for world citizenship as opposed to narrow nationalism. Suggests means of obtaining the objectives of "World Civics" and calls attention to the contribution of the Junior Red Cross, of which he is the American Director.

The University Spirit. J. St. Loe Strachey, School and Society, January 2, 1926. The duty of the university is to illuminate men's minds, to store up knowledge, to quicken the human spirit by learning and to teach men that they are men. Such is a part of the message given by this prominent Englishman to the assembly at Swarthmore College, Founders' Day, 1925.

How to Teach Evolution in the Schools. Henry Fairfield Osborn, School and Society, January 9, 1926. Teachers of biology in the high school will do well to read this splendid article by the famous opponent of W. J. Bryan. Evolution, he says, is a symbol for the divine order of nature; and he gives a number of suggestions as to how to bring home the idea to young minds.

The Art of Examination. A. Lawrence Lowell, Atlantic Monthly, January, 1926. The writer discusses the three distinct objects of examinations: (1) To measure the progress of pupils; (2) as a direct means of education; (3) to set a standard for achievement. He thinks that too much attention has been paid to the first-named object which is the least important of the three. Examinations properly used are a vital part of the educational process, but the art of using them is complex and difficult.

American Democracy and the Parochial School. Rev. John O'Brien, Columbia, January, 1926. The author sounds a call to American Catholics not to rest secure in the Oregon decision of the Supreme Court but to prepare for the conflict that lies ahead. Only an educated laity that is able to convince the American people of the genuine Americanism of the parochial school and of its place in American life can offer an effective resistance to the propaganda that is being spread against us.

Administration and Supervision

A Study of the Status of Teaching in State Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges. J. O. Engleman, Elementary School

Journal, January, 1926, p. 256. A report of a study of the present status of student teaching, based on a questionnaire sent to seventy-nine presidents of state normal schools and to fifty-nine state college presidents. Affords a very definite notion of present tendencies and practices.

The Making of Supervisory Programs. W. H. Burton, Elementary School Journal, December, 1925, p. 264; January, 1926, p. 367. Practical suggestions as to the planning of supervision. In the second part, the application is made to the work of the building principal.

The Local Status and Activities of General Supervisors in City Schools. H. Ambrose Perrin, Elementary School Journal, January, 1926, p. 345. A practical study of the work of the general supervisor in various parts of the United States. Reveals a number of interesting facts concerning such elements as the unit of supervision, visiting schedules, the number and length of visits, records kept, follow-up devices used.

The Organizing and Supervising of Assembly Programs. Franklin P. Hawkes, Journal of Educational Method, January, 1926, p. 197. Ways and means of organizing the school assembly so as to make it productive of the best results for school and pupils.

Administrative Procedure Affected by Child Accounting. Arthur B. Moehlman, Educational Supervision and Administration, January, 1926, p. 17. Scientific child accounting in Detroit has yielded facts that have influenced administrative technique in almost every field. Shows relation of records to the general progress of the school system.

Curriculum and Methods

How to Lead Children to Outline. Mattie L. Hatcher, Journal of Educational Method, January, 1926, pp. 186. A description of practice in the training school of the Western Kentucky State Teachers College from the first grade through the Junior High School.

The Free Reading Period in the Library of the Elementary School. W. L. Longshore and Winifred K. Prout, Journal of Educational Method, January, 1926, p. 212. A practical appraisal of the free reading period with an indication of its various advantages.

The City of Make Believe: A Project in Character-building and Citizenship. Myrtle L. Wright, Elementary School Journal, January, 1926, p. 376. The report of the organization of a school along the lines of a miniature city, which indicates outcomes of a civic and moral nature.

Number Needs in Children's Reading Activities. Clara Martin Partridge, Elementary School Journal, January, 1926, p. 357. The report of a study of numerical and arithmetical references in textbooks and magazines read by elementary school children that indicates the need of providing personal experiences in arithmetical situations over and above those met with in the ordinary course in arithmetic.

The Medieval Period Come to Life. Anne Longfellow Thorp, Progressive Education, October, 1925, p. 236. Tells how the story of the Middle Ages was made real and vivid to eighth grade children in the Shady Hill School. Photographs of several scenes that were dramatized are especially interesting because of the simplicity and beauty of the settings.

Music from the Point of View of the General Educator. Kilpatrick and Others, Teachers College Record, January, 1926, p. 367. A symposium which answers the question, "What has the school to do with music?" Contains many enlightening suggestions as to the various values that are fostered by a worthwhile course in music, in the schools.

Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum. Research Bulletin by the National Educational Association, September-November, 1925. A summary of all the literature in curriculum changes, together with extensive bibliographies. Probably the most usable review of its kind that has yet appeared.

Curriculum Enrichment in the Junior High School. Emma Glaser and Ella A. Hawkinson, Journal of Educational Method, January, 1926, p. 206. An account of a project presenting the development of the art of making books.

The Teaching of Religion; Dramatization on the Mass. P. Henry Matimore, S.T.D., Catholic School Interests, January, 1926, p. 309. The outline of a very interesting project for making the Mass real to children in the grammar grades.

Freedom: A Dramatization Project for Semester of Eighth Grade. Sister Mary Columba, B.V.M., Catholic School Interests, January, 1926, p. 317. Suggests a means of making the study of history more interesting and meaningful to the children.

Educational Psychology and Educational Tests

Construction of the Multi-Mental Scale. Wm. A. McCall and His Students, Teachers College Record, XXVII, January, 1926, pp. 394-415.

An account of the construction and validation of the new Multi-Mental Scale devised by McCall and designed to measure general intelligence.

Minimum Essentials in Reporting Data on Standard Tests. G. M. Ruch, Journal of Educational Research, XII, December, 1925, pp. 349-358.

A description of criteria to be employed in the evaluation of tests and measurements with special reference to reliability. The different methods of estimating reliability are described at length.

The Effect of Objective Standards upon Composition Teachers' Judgments. Earl Hudelson, Journal of Educational Research, XII, December, 1925, pp. 329-340.

The use of a scale for measuring composition improved the ability to a number of teachers to score compositions accurately.

Improving Instruction through Point Tests. Joseph C. McElhannon, Peabody Journal of Education, III, November, 1925, pp. 131-138.

The use of the new type of examinations in college courses yields certain values to the instructors and students.

What Words Should Children Be Taught to Spell? II. Vocabularies of Various Types. Frederick S. Breed, The Elementary School Journal, XXVI, November, 1925, pp. 202-214.

A discussion of the content of the spelling vocabulary.

What Words Should Children be Taught to Spell? III. Limitations of the Adult Standard of Selection. Frederick S. Breed, The Elementary School Journal, XXVI, December, 1925, pp. 292-306.

The differences between the words and their frequencies that comprise children's theme vocabularies and adult correspondence vocabularies are studied.

A Study of Pupil Failures in Chicago. Don C. Rogers, The Elementary School Journal, XXVI, December, 1925, pp. 273-277.

The causes of low percentages and high percentages of failures are tabulated.

Studies of Achievement Tests. Ben D. Wood, Journal of Educational Psychology, XVII, January, 1926, pp. 1-22.

A detailed study of the validity and reliability of various methods of scoring alternative response type of tests.

The Status of University Intelligence Tests in 1923-24. Herbert A. Toops, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVII, January, 1926, pp. 23-36.

A study of the extent to which intelligence tests are being used in colleges, the tests employed with their frequency, and the uses made of the results.

An Improved Rating Scale Technique. Paul H. Furfey, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVII, January, 1926, pp. 45-48.

A description of a method for increasing the reliability of ratings with the results secured from an application of the method.

Statistical Issues. Karl J. Holzinger, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVII, January, 1926, pp. 49-51.

A reply to Franzen's criticism of certain methods of measuring reliability.

The Negative Suggestion Effect of True-False Examination Questions. H. H. Remmers and Edna M. Remmers, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVII, January, 1926, pp. 52-56.

The use of true-false tests does not cause false associations. Completion tests yield higher scores than true-false tests when the latter are corrected for guessing.

A Note on the Relationship Between the Number of Months of Study and Proficiency (Geometry). Donald Snedden, *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVII, January, 1926, p. 57.

The length of time devoted to a subject is practically worthless as an indication of his proficiency in that subject.

The Sower, a journal of Catholic education published at 763 Coventry Road, Birmingham, England, appears in larger form beginning with the January issue, and will in future appear quarterly in January, April, July, and October. The current issue contains several interesting articles among which are "Christmas and Epiphany in Rome," by Rev. W. O. Brady; "The School and the Parents," by A. Dale; "Shakespeare by the Direct Method," by Dom. H. R. Williams, O.S.B.; and "The Perils of Fluency," by S. J. G.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Longfellow: Tales of a Wayside Inn.

Allyn and Bacon have issued a new edition of "Longfellow: Tales of a Wayside Inn." The book is intended for high-school use and contains practically the whole of the Tales. We wonder why the book has been published. The fact that Longfellow wrote it is no sufficient reason. The editor, Mr. H. W. Boynton, offers, as a reason, the need of a text to prepare for college entrance examinations. But the applicant has a choice of many authors when preparing for these examinations, and he need not, therefore, choose bigoted materials which will do him more harm than good. Mr. Boynton adds, as an additional reason, that the explanatory notes of other larger texts are scanty and inadequate for the use of the modern high school. Some of his own notes are extremely "inadequate." They are the ones which deal with Catholic subjects.

Athanasian Creeds (p. 256). It is implied that in the fourth century the Catholic Church *adopted* the doctrine that Christ is divine and "co-equal with the Father." This doctrine was then nearly four centuries old. It had been taught by Christ himself and was received from Him, and not "adopted" at all.

Ferdinand and Torquemada (p. 257). "The Inquisition . . . was founded to . . . punish heresy; and especially Protestantism." "Ferdinand V, the Spanish King, who founded the Inquisition," died in 1516. A year later, in 1517, Luther, the founder of Protestantism, rebelled against the Catholic Church. It was a little hard for Ferdinand to found an organization to punish in a special way that which did not exist until after he himself was dead. This note is surely "inadequate," particularly as it takes the trouble to give us 1516 as the date of Ferdinand's death.

The Monk Tetzl. Indulgences (p. 262). Tetzl was not a "religious charlatan." Historians have shown this charge to be a deliberate lie. He did not make a fortune (for himself); he was gathering funds, "conducting a drive" for building in Rome. The contributions made were not due to fears or ignorance. They are ignorant who say that there is no hereafter, and that there is no future punishment for crime and evil committed in this life. They also are ignorant who do not know that alms

have the effect of mitigating the punishments of the hereafter.

Tetzel did not put over a "purely business deal." He was over-zealous, but not guilty of mere business trafficking. He did not offer "absolution or indulgence, without confession or repentance." These conditions had to be met *before* the document issued by Tetzel *could confer authority* on the confessor chosen by the penitent.

We thus find inaccuracy in the notes as well as unfairness in the Tales. While we cannot judge the motive of the editor, we can judge the work, and we condemn it. We say it is regrettable that such a book be put into the hands of high-school students at any time, but especially during these days when bitter religious strife and uncalled-for opposition to Catholicity are being so persistently manufactured. The reading of this book will normally increase this strife and will lead our high school students to join in the general hue and cry against Catholics. To no good purpose does the book stir up anew all the sleeping fires of the one-time burning questions and calumnies of: Conversion by the Sword, The Inquisition, Selling of Indulgences, Carousing Monks, Hypocritical Virtue. Such a book should not be adopted anywhere. We regret that Longfellow wrote it, and we also regret that any firm, so fair in its dealings as Allyn and Bacon, should offer such a book to high-school students who need help and truth, not poison.

LEO S. SIMPSON, S.J.

God and Reason—Some Theses from Natural Theology, by William J. Brosnan, S.J., Ph.D. New York: Fordham University Press. 227 pages.

Dr. Brosnan holds closely to the scholastic method of presentation, orderly theses, definitions, division, objections, answers—so much so that one might imagine himself to be reading an English translation of an article of St. Thomas. The only difference is in the names of the authors whom Dr. Brosnan opposes. Neither the past nor the very current present thought is neglected. Nor is the student asked to take a second-hand notion of what Hocking, or Drake, or Leuba or a host of other moderns think about God and the ability of human reason to know of God's existence and nature.

As fair an excerpt as could be given in a brief text is included and fair and moderate resumes of such positions are made. The net effect is to bring home to the mind of the reader the immense gain for clearness and precision of thought this age-old scholastic method has obtained. Here, for instance, is a much simpler, more easily grasped analysis for the beginner than the recent excellent treatise of Dr. Joyce, a confrere of Dr. Brosnan. For a teacher or general reader who is seeking a clear, yet brief, and up-to-date consideration of the greatest philosophical question this little digest of the author's larger Latin work can be highly recommended.

CHAS. A. HART.

The Constitution Today, by Roscoe Lewis Ashley. Macmillan Company, New York: 1924. Pp. 237.

Professor Ashley, the well-known writer of texts for secondary schools, contributes in this study of the Constitution another excellent, almost an ideal manual for high school classes in American history and government and for teachers of these subjects in the grades. The foreword is a splendid statement of the fundamental need of studying the Constitution, not as an eighteenth century document, but as a living constitution, the very heart of our political organization. Its support is good citizenship, and its menace is no longer localism so much as opposition to legal restraint and popular prejudice against certain laws enacted under its authority and governmental policies. Its danger, too, is the slight historical understanding of its more violent, destructive critics. And of the need of a historical background, the writer is insistent, as he is also in urging against memory work and the old-fashioned methods.

He gives a few pages to colonial contributions and experiences, but forgets that the true background lies in English principles, laws, and institutions. I would suggest that a serious teacher commence by reading line for line G. B. Adam's *Outline Sketch of English Constitutional History*. In the colonial section, it would be well to emphasize the relative democracy in a modern sense, the failure to separate Church and State, and save in the isolated and temporary instances of Maryland, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, the absence of religious toleration. Then the

pupil would understand better the slow growth of these characteristic principles in our polity.

In nine chapters there is the conventional description of the framing of the document, the preamble, powers and organization of Congress, the presidency, courts, relations of nation and states, amendments, personal and property rights, and the present "unwritten constitution." The annotated constitution in the appendix will serve the teacher well in her explanatory efforts and probably stimulate further thought and study. The illustrations are well chosen, though the view of the House in session depicts such a complete attendance that the pupil will be deceived as to the zeal of its membership in their official duties.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

The Constitution at a Glance, by Henry B. Hazard and Margaret Moore. Privately printed. Lock Box 1919, Washington, D. C.

The Constitution at a Glance is an outline analysis in various colored type with explanatory notes and interpretation on a large single sheet. Intended for those who read the Constitution as they run, or rather as they prepare for a civil service or similar examination, it might serve a worthier purpose as a wall chart in classrooms where civics or American government are taught. Aside from its material value such a chart should inspire a child with a personal feeling for the document and its availability result in greater familiarity with the contents of the Constitution.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

Books Received

Textbooks

Muller, Margarethe; Wenckenbach, Carla: *Gluckauf*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xiii+303. Price, \$1.20.

Newman, John Henry, D.D.: *Lectures on the Present Position of Catholics in England*. O'Connell, Daniel M., S.J., Editor. Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1925. Pp. 396. Price, \$1.30.

Parker, Roscoe E.: *A Review of the Essentials of English Composition*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. vii+145. Price, \$1.40.

Philippe, Charles-Louis: *Enfants et Petites Gens*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1925. Pp. xiii+244. Price, \$1.10.

Quinn, Rev. John F., S.J. (Editor): *Loyola Book of Verse*

(Revised Edition). Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1922. Pp. 281. Price, \$1.00.

Reiss, Ernest, Ph.D.: *Latin Drill Book*. New York: Globe Book Co., 1925. Pp. 114.

Robinson, James Harvey: *An Introduction to the History of Western Europe* (New Brief Edition). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. xi+854.

Scott, Walter: *Tales of a Grandfather*. Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. viii+351. Price, \$0.72.

Shakespeare, William: *Twelfth Night* (Thurber, Samuel, Jr., Editor). Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1925. Pp. x+244. Price, \$0.65.

Smith, C. Alphonso: *Literary Contrasts* (selected and edited). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. ix+432.

Smith, David Eugene; Foberg, John Albert; Reeve, William David: *General High School Mathematics* (Book One). Boston: Ginn & Company, 1925. Pp. viii+472. Price, \$1.60.

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